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SEWER RENTALS AS A MEANS OF FINANCING SANITATION IMPROVEMENTS
IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

By

John E. Dever

Research Associate

Among the many services performed by communities for their citizens, none are more important than those in the field of sanitation. Sanitation has gradually come to the fore as citizens have begun to understand that health is not a negative, abstract concept but a positive state of body, mind and community spirit. The task assigned to the sewerage system in this area of government service is that of safely removing the human and industrial wastes of the community and providing a degree of treatment and sterilization that will make living in the community as pleasant as possible.

Developing a Community System

When a municipality decides that it needs a sewerage system, the question immediately is asked - what elements make up such a system? In the past, generally speaking, these have included:

- (1) storm sewers - pipes that carry storm water to rivers and lakes,
- (2) sewer lines - pipes that carry sewage from source to disposal facilities,
- (3) treatment plants - for mechanical, biological and/or chemical treatment and disposal of waste.

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The basic element which most communities have to work with is their town or city drainage system. These systems were designed primarily for the removal of storm and other natural waters in order to prevent floods. Many municipalities have added sewage to these storm sewers. However, they are now being forced to consider the problem of (1) what to do with polluted waters if they should happen to back up in the streets after a storm and (2) how to handle all the added volume at the disposal plant.

It has become evident that the menace to public health and the extra treatment which is required makes this combined system economically infeasible. Hence, we find most communities now thinking in terms of separate drainage and sewage systems, and a sewage treatment plant.

Changing Needs

Today, more and more communities are being faced with pressing disposal problems. The rapid industrialization, urbanization and rise of sewer user devices (i.e., home garbage grinders, air conditioning units, automatic washers) have brought these problems to a climax.

The lag in sewer and sewage treatment plant construction was pointed up dramatically in a nationwide survey made by the U. S. Public Health Service in 1948. At that time, the estimated cost to bring Connecticut's facilities up to minimum positive health standards was put at more than 39 million dollars. Of this total, some 24 million dollars was said to be needed for sewer lines and it was suggested that at least 15 million dollars be expended to improve old and build new treatment plants.¹ Since that survey, Connecticut towns and cities have authorized at least

¹U. S. Public Health Service, Nationwide Inventory Sanitation Needs, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1948. The data used for this inventory was obtained from State Health Departments and State Water Commissions.

6.5 million dollars in expenditures for sewer and sewage disposal needs. Even with this excellent start, there still remains a 32 million dollar job to be completed.

The Connecticut State Water Commission estimates that 63 per cent of the sewage waste now handled municipally is receiving adequate treatment. When all present projects are completed, 92 per cent will be adequately treated and it is hoped that within five years this total will reach 100 per cent.

Where's the Money Coming From?

Such improvements can be paid for from money already on hand or by borrowing.

Out of Current Reserves

Since the early twenties, most communities have found increasing difficulties in trying to make the general property tax cover an ever expanding number of services. This has been brought about by the:

- (1) general inflexibility of the property tax system,
- (2) rapid rise in the cost of labor and materials and
- (3) demand for increased community services, such as:
 - (a) more extensive school systems,
 - (b) more and better paved streets,
 - (c) indoor and outdoor recreation facilities,
 - (d) better police and fire protection and
 - (e) public collection and disposal of garbage and refuse.

While this clamor for greater services has increased, no new sources of tax dollars have been opened to Connecticut local governments in years. To satisfy these added demands it has been necessary to resort to borrowing.

Borrowing

The method of long term borrowing resorted to by municipalities is the issuing of bonds. Bonds are sold on a fixed date and, under Connecticut law, are usually retired in substantially equal payments over a period of years. They may be general obligation bonds, special assessment bonds, revenue bonds, or a combination of two

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with this excellent report, there still remains a \$2 million dollar job to be

completed.

The Connecticut State Water Commission estimates that 65 per cent of the
The basic element which must be considered in the design of the
sewerage system is the quantity of sewage to be disposed of. When all
city drainage system. These systems were designed primarily for the removal of
present projects are completed, 35 per cent will be adequately treated and 15 per
storm and other natural waters in order to prevent floods. Many municipalities
have added sewage to these storm sewers. However, they are not being treated to

Design of the Sewer System

to the sewerage system and to provide for the many elements on which it is dependent.

Design of Sewerage System

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Financing

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-4-

or more of these types.¹ In addition, towns and cities are sometimes able to obtain loans or grants from other governmental jurisdictions.

(1) General Obligation Bonds - bear the full faith and credit of the issuing governmental agency. They must ultimately be paid off out of general property tax revenues.

(2) Special Assessment Bonds - are issued and funds established to account for the financing of improvements or services from special charges levied against the properties or persons benefited.

(3) Revenue Bonds - are issued, backed up and paid for by revenue derived from use charges or benefit assessments or both on items constructed with the borrowed money. In order to insure payment, special funds,² districts or authorities³ are often set up. They have for their sole purpose the administration of the funds borrowed and revenue received to pay off these loans and/or operate the service provided.

(4) Grants or Borrowing from Other Governmental Jurisdictions - At the present time there are two federal loan procedures set up for this purpose. They include funds for (a) advance planning of public works, and (b) sewer and sewage plant planning and construction. The planning advances, provided under P.L. 352 (81st Congress) can be obtained from the Housing and Home Finance Agency for planning sewer extensions and sewage treatment plants. They are available as interest free loans that must be repaid when construction begins. Information can be obtained by contacting the Community Facilities Service, Housing and Home Finance Agency, Washington, D. C.

¹ Sec. 72a, 1949 Supplement to General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision; Sec. 740, General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision.

² Sec. 80a and 81a, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes; Sec. 742, General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision.

³ Sec. 59a, 60a, and 70a, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes of Connecticut.

or note of these types. In addition, notes and letters are sometimes sold as

cash loans or grants from other governmental institutions.

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(3) Revenue Bonds - are issued, backed up and paid for payments derived from

any charges or benefits assessments or both on items connected with the bonded

money. In order to insure payment, special funds, deposits or endowments are

often set up. They have for their sole purpose the redemption of the bonds

and revenue received to pay off these loans and to operate the service

provided.

(4) Bonds of Refunding from Other Governmental Institutions - as the present

form of these are for refinancing proceeds set up for this purpose. They include

both (a) refunding of public works, and (b) new and refunding bonds

planning and construction. The planning advances, provided under P.L. 311

(State Department) can be obtained from the Housing and Home Finance Agency for

planning, construction and mortgage investment funds. They are available on the

basis of loans that must be repaid when construction begins. Information can

be obtained by contacting the Community Facilities Service, Housing and Home Fin-

ance Agency, Washington, D. C.

¹ Sec. 72a, 1949 Supplement to General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision;
Sec. 72b, General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision.

² Sec. 80a and 81a, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes; Sec. 72c, General
Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision.

³ Sec. 72a, 72b, 72c, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes of Connecticut.

Public Law 245 (80th Congress) authorized 22.5 million dollars to be spent yearly for water pollution control construction loans at not less than two percent interest.¹ However, the President's budget for the fiscal year ending July 1951 calls for no money for these sewerage construction loans. (Unless Congress steps outside the budget recommendations and appropriates some of the construction loan authorization there will be no federally aided sewage plant construction before July 1951.) Added information may be obtained by writing the Division of Water Pollution Control, U.S. Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

Why a Service Charge?

All methods of borrowing except special assessment bonds and revenue bonds depend upon the already overworked property tax base to raise required revenues. Special assessments charge the property owner a fee for the construction of that portion of the cost of a system which benefits his property. Such an assessment can be easily and equitably determined for each lateral in the sewerage system but the apportionment of the cost of constructing portions of main interceptors or trunk lines and the treatment plant is a different matter. In this case, determining individual benefit and assigning a property assessment charge becomes most difficult. Assessments are usually on a front foot basis and while equitable for charges on lateral sewers, they have no direct relationship to individual benefit.

A widely accepted measure of individual benefit is the extent to which individuals use the system. Assuming that all users should share equally in the cost of such a system according to how much they "use" it - one arrives at the sewer service charge plan.

What is a Sewer Service Charge?

Sewer service charges are periodic charges to the users of a sewer system based upon the use of the system. The term does not include special assessments

¹ Generally, Connecticut cities and towns can borrow through usual sources for less than two per cent interest.

for sewer construction, sewer construction fees, or special general property taxes earmarked for sewer construction.¹

Rise of Sewer Service Charges

There has been a steady increase in the number of municipalities adopting the sewer service charge system as a means of obtaining revenue to liquidate the cost of improvements, finance the operation of a sewer system and treatment plant and circumvent legal debt limitations by issuing service charge revenues to pay off revenue bond issues.²

In May-Apr 44 1971 the South Manchester Sanitary and Sewer District, part of the town of Manchester, was making a sewer service charge. Since Connecticut municipalities have been granted power, though initially indirectly, to levy such charges by General Statute and special legislation since 1870. Today over 1,000 municipalities³ and nearly 500 municipalities over 2,000 population throughout the United States have installed such plans.

Setting Up a Sewer Service Charge System

There are several basic problems involved in setting up a sewer service charge plan and putting it into effect. Once legal authority has been granted and a plan decided upon, it is necessary to:

- (1) devise a method of fixing charges,
- (2) obtain formal approval and public acceptance of rates,
- (3) establish a billing procedure and
- (4) formulate a collection and enforcement policy.

¹International City Managers' Association, 1947 Municipal Yearbook, ICM, Chicago, 1949, pp.297.

²Sec. 70c, 1967 Supplement to the General Statutes of Connecticut.

³Manchester and Middletown.

Methods of Fixing Charges

What is a reasonably accurate measure of the degree of individual use? Will special measures be required for users outside town and city limits? These and many other questions must be resolved before an equitable method of fixing service charges can be decided upon. It is not an easy task for "use" is notoriously difficult to measure and the final plan accepted must be integrated with other municipal revenue raising devices.

Connecticut statutes provide for several methods of fixing charges.¹ These include charges based upon the:

- (1) type of property,
- (2) number of persons customarily using the property serviced,
- (3) Number of plumbing fixtures and/or sewer connections,
- (4) water consumption or volume of water discharged and
- (5) quality and character of material discharged.

Charges dependent upon the type of property, number of persons serviced, plumbing fixtures or sewer connections are short cut expedients often used when more accurate measures of use are not available. The two Connecticut municipalities now levying sewer service charges both use water consumption as the basis of their charges. They assume that the use of the sewage system will be directly related to the amount of water consumed.

The most accurate method of measuring use is to meter sewage. However, unlike water meters, few municipalities have sewage meters nor can they afford the cost of buying and installing these meters. Any system that is limited upon cost to choose because, in the light of monetary responsibility, it is easy to administer, enforce and is equitable.

¹ Gen. Stat., 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes of Connecticut; Sec. 735, General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision.

how other cities in the United States over 10,000 people have solved the problem follows:¹

Population Group	No. Cities in Group	Cities with Service Charge	Basis of Charge ²										
			X	C	F	G	P	R	S	U	W	Z	OTHER
Over 500,000	24	4	28.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	1
250,000-500,000	23	9	31.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1	-
100,000-250,000	20	11	25.0	3	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
50,000-100,000	135	22	17.0	6	1	-	-	-	-	3	4	-	2
25,000-50,000	212	16	15.7	7	5	-	1	1	2	1	10	-	1
10,000-25,000	662	162	24.5	19	20	2	4	3	12	21	27	-	9
Total	1072	250	23.3	35	26	3	5	4	34	27	56	2	3

X - Fixed per cent of water bill, F - number of fixtures, G - number of front feet of property facing part of system, P - type or kind of property, R - number of rooms, S - number of sewer connections, U - flat rate or minimum charge, W - based on water consumption (not fixed percentage of bill), Z - size of meter.

Establishing Rates

The problem of establishing rates is largely one of determining how much money must be raised by service charges. Rates must be adequate to meet debt obligations and to cover operating expenses.

It is essential that the public be convinced of the equity and justice of rates to be charged. This is partially insured in Connecticut by the legal requirement that public hearings be held concerning the assessment of benefits.

As part of their product must be solved, (i.e., ice plants, food

apply. Also, the percentage of water consumed by residences that local residents in the sewage system must be determined. Both these problems will require simple arithmetic and figures and not arbitrary "arm chair" guesses. It is important to be assured that rates are actually based upon a scale of benefits received.

One of our Connecticut localities with a sewer service charge bases its charge on a fixed percentage of the water bill. The other municipality makes a charge per thousand cubic feet of water consumed, but allows 25 per cent off for bathing and a ten per cent allowance for bakeries.

Billing Practice

Since Connecticut law provides that the owner of a parcel of property serviced by a system is liable for the payment of the bill, all charges should be directed to the owner rather than the occupant of the property being serviced.¹ The statutes also permit towns and cities to enter into agreements with water companies or departments for billing.

If rates are based on water bills or billing is done by a water company, bills are usually sent out quarterly. (One Connecticut town sends out sewer charges bills semi-annually.) The cost of administering such service charge programs vary from five to ten per cent of the total revenue depending upon the frequency of billing.

Collection Policy

The steps usually followed in making collections are to wait thirty days after the bill becomes due. Then if not paid to (1) contact the property owner directly by mail or phone, (2) disconnect both his water and sewer facilities,² and (3) begin

¹ Sec. 68a, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes.

² Sec. 85a, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes; Sec. 745, General Statutes of Connecticut, 1949 Revision.

a small exit for the amount due or place a lien against the property.¹ It should be pointed out that the great majority of towns and cities experience no more difficulty in collecting sewer service charges than they do in collecting water bills.

Summary

The sewer service charge plan can be of great value to communities faced with making large expenditures to improve their sewage and/or sewage disposal facilities. The whole burden of financing and maintaining such improvements can be removed from the list of services supported by the general fund and property taxes. This burden can be shifted to those that will use these added services, including otherwise tax exempt users, and leave property tax revenue for other purposes.

With stream pollution control a definite factor which all towns and cities must consider, every municipality will want to survey its sanitation needs, its bonded indebtedness, and if necessary, examine the possibilities of a sewer service charge plan.

¹ Sec. 71a, 1949 Supplement to the General Statutes.

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4. International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Religious Intolerance
5. International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
6. International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid
7. International Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes Against Humanity
8. International Convention on the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings
9. International Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism
10. International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Persons Belonging to Ethnic Minority Groups
11. International Convention on the Rights of Migrant Workers
12. International Convention on the Rights of the Child
13. International Convention on the Rights of the Child
14. International Convention on the Rights of the Child
15. International Convention on the Rights of the Child

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REGULATING AND FINANCING
RESIDENTIAL SUBDIVISION DEVELOPMENT
IN
CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

by

Sydele Sthool

Departmental Assistant

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REGULATING AND FINANCING

RESIDENTIAL SUBDIVISION DEVELOPMENT

IN

CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

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Connecticut is the fastest growing of the New England states. Between 1940 and 1954 the population has increased from 1,709,242 to an estimated total of 2,222,000, an increase of 30 per cent; the number of births has risen during the same period from 25,074 to 45,000 or 80 per cent. There has also been a shift of population from urban areas to small suburban towns.

One of the ramifications of this expanding population is that Connecticut towns and cities are faced with the problem of integrating a large number of new residential developments into their communities. How this problem is being met will have a great deal to do with the physical and financial well-being of these communities for years to come.

In 1950, the Institute of Public Service published a bulletin called Regulating and Financing Residential Subdivision Development in Connecticut Towns and Cities by John E. Dever. It was found that most of the communities were handling regulation and planning of residential subdivisions on an individual basis. Some localities were requiring sponsors of residential developments to meet rigid specifications and requirements while other towns had no regulations, specifications or plans of any kind. In some areas the town assumed the cost of installations; in others they were made the responsibility of the developer.

Data on 82 Towns and Cities and 3 Boroughs

To find out what Connecticut municipalities are doing with this problem five years after the original study, a short questionnaire was sent to the 173 towns and cities and 14 boroughs. Of these communities, 82 towns and cities and 3 boroughs returned completed questionnaires.

The 82 towns and cities represent 47 per cent of the 169 towns and cities and

4 unconsolidated cities and contained 76% of the 1950 population of the state. The returns are predominately from the more thickly settled areas in Fairfield, Hartford, New Haven and New London counties. Twenty-five of the towns are in Litchfield, Middlesex, Windham and Tolland counties.

Connecticut Towns and Cities Answering Questionnaires

-- By Counties --

<u>County</u>	<u>Number of Towns and Cities</u>	<u>Number Answering Questionnaire</u>	<u>%</u>
Fairfield	24	14	58
Hartford	29	17	58
Litchfield	26	8	31
Middlesex	15	6	40
New Haven	27	18	66
New London	21	8	38
Windham	17	3	18
Tolland	<u>14</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>57</u>
Totals	173	82	47
<u>Boroughs</u>	14	3	21

Connecticut Towns and Cities Answering Questionnaires

-- By Population Groups --

<u>Population Group</u>	<u>Number of Towns and Cities</u>	<u>Number Answering Questionnaire</u>	<u>%</u>
50,000 and Over	6	6	100
10,000 - 50,000	40	23	57
5,000 - 10,000	27	16	63
2,000 - 5,000	47	21	44
Below 2,000	<u>53</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>30</u>
Totals	173	82	47

One official in each town was asked whether the municipality or developers bear the cost of street and utility installations in residential subdivisions in his jurisdiction. Street installations were divided into the following:

- (1) grading
- (2) paving
- (3) curbs
- (4) gutters
- (5) sidewalks

Utility installations were divided into:

- (1) Sanitary sewers
 - (a) trunk lines
 - (b) lateral extensions
- (2) Storm sewers
 - (a) trunk lines
 - (b) lateral extensions
- (3) Water mains

The 82 towns and cities and 3 boroughs answered the questionnaire as follows:

Questions	Who Bears the Cost	
<u>Street Installations</u>	<u>Municipality</u>	<u>Developers</u>
(1) grading	8	74
(2) paving	18	62
(3) curbs	10	56
(4) gutters	13	60
(5) sidewalks	10	53
<u>Utility Installations</u>		
Sanitary Sewers		
(6) trunk lines	16	37
(7) lateral extensions	5	44
Storm Sewers		
(8) trunk lines	15	52
(9) lateral extensions	9	54
(10) Water mains	7	47

It is significant that over a period of five years there has been a tendency in the majority of towns to make both street and utility installations the responsibility of the developer. In the 1950 study almost one-half of the municipalities did all the paving. The trunk lines of both sanitary and storm sewers were in many cases also provided by the town.

Now the developer is usually **not** only required to provide curbs, gutters, sidewalks, grading and paving but also both the trunk lines and lateral extensions of sanitary and storm sewers. Only seven communities furnish water mains for subdivisions. Regulations covering curbs, gutters, and sidewalks are still not as widespread as those for streets and roads.

Population Groups

Five years ago, the smaller towns tended to assume more responsibility for the

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installations of streets and utilities than did the larger cities. From the answers now received, it is clearly evident that regardless of the population group studied, the developer in most cases, assumes the cost. For example, out of 21 towns responding in the 2,000-5,000 population group 19 required the developer to pay for the grading; 16 required them to pay for the paving; and 14 out of the 15 towns requiring curbs also make it the responsibility of the developer.

Summary of Answers to Questionnaires by Population Groups¹

<u>Questions</u>	<u>Population Groups</u>									
	Below 2,000		2,000- 5,000		5,000- 10,000		10,000- 50,000		50,000 and Over	
<u>Street Installations</u>	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D
(1) grading	2	13	2	19	1	16	2	20	-	6
(2) paving	4	9	5	16	3	14	4	19	1	4
(3) curbs	1	9	1	14	3	11	3	17	1	5
(4) gutters	2	11	3	16	3	11	4	16	-	6
(5) sidewalks	-	7	2	12	4	11	2	19	1	4
<u>Utility Installations</u>										
Sanitary Sewers										
(6) trunk lines	-	5	1	10	2	8	9	11	3	3
(7) lateral extensions	1	3	-	10	1	9	1	16	1	5
Storm Sewers										
(8) trunk lines	-	7	3	13	5	9	4	19	2	4
(9) lateral extensions	1	5	1	12	1	13	4	19	1	5
(10) Water mains	-	5	1	11	3	9	1	19	2	3

¹ "M" refers to municipality and "D" to developers in each case.

Geographical Area

It is interesting to note that there is a great deal of similarity in the way municipalities in a geographical area handle the financing of streets and utility installations. For instance, in Fairfield and Hartford ~~counties~~ almost all localities require developers to bear the costs of both streets and utilities while in New London County a good percentage of the towns bear these costs with public funds.

Summary of Answers to Questionnaires by Counties¹

<u>Question</u>	<u>County</u>															
	Fairfield		Hartford		Litchfield		Middlesex		New Haven		New London		Windham		Tolland	
	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D
Street Installations																
(1) grading	-	13	-	14	1	8	1	5	-	18	2	6	2	1	2	7
(2) paving	-	13	2	14	2	6	3	3	-	17	4	4	3	-	4	5
(3) curbs	-	13	1	11	-	6	2	3	2	13	2	4	1	2	2	4
(4) gutters	-	13	-	14	-	6	2	5	1	15	5	2	3	-	2	5
(5) sidewalks	-	12	-	11	-	6	2	3	2	11	3	5	-	3	3	2
Utility Installations																
Sanitary Sewers																
(6) trunk lines	2	7	3	8	1	2	1	4	5	6	2	4	1	2	1	4
(7) lateral extensions	-	9	-	11	1	2	-	5	2	5	1	5	-	3	1	4
Storm Sewers																
(8) trunk lines	2	10	2	13	-	6	1	5	3	9	2	4	3	-	2	5
(9) lateral extensions	-	12	2	13	1	4	-	6	2	8	2	4	1	1	1	6
(10) Water Mains	1	11	1	11	1	4	-	5	1	8	3	3	-	2	-	3

Regulations

In order to enforce requirements that will insure orderly development, many towns and cities have adopted certain specific regulations. Most common are those concerning the laying out, grading and paving of streets. In addition several communities have made detailed specifications for other utility installations.²

¹ "M" refers to municipality and "D" to developers in each case.

² See Section II in Appendix for some typical regulations governing subdivision development.

Summary

Over the last five years, Connecticut towns and cities have become increasingly conscious of the need for adequate regulation of new residential subdivisions. This is demonstrated by the increasing number of communities that are requiring developers to meet street specifications and requirements. One town reported that it was studying the whole problem and planning new ordinances and regulations. Two had within the last six months adopted new and more specific regulations and two anticipated changes within the near future.

The financial difficulties that these same communities are facing because of an expanding population has caused an increasing number of them to make both street and utility installations the responsibility of the developer.

The problem of providing adequate provision for integrating residential subdivisions in Connecticut communities is by no means completely solved. It is heartening, however, to realize that within the last five years, additional strides have been made.

Appendix Section I

Summary of Answers to Questionnaires*

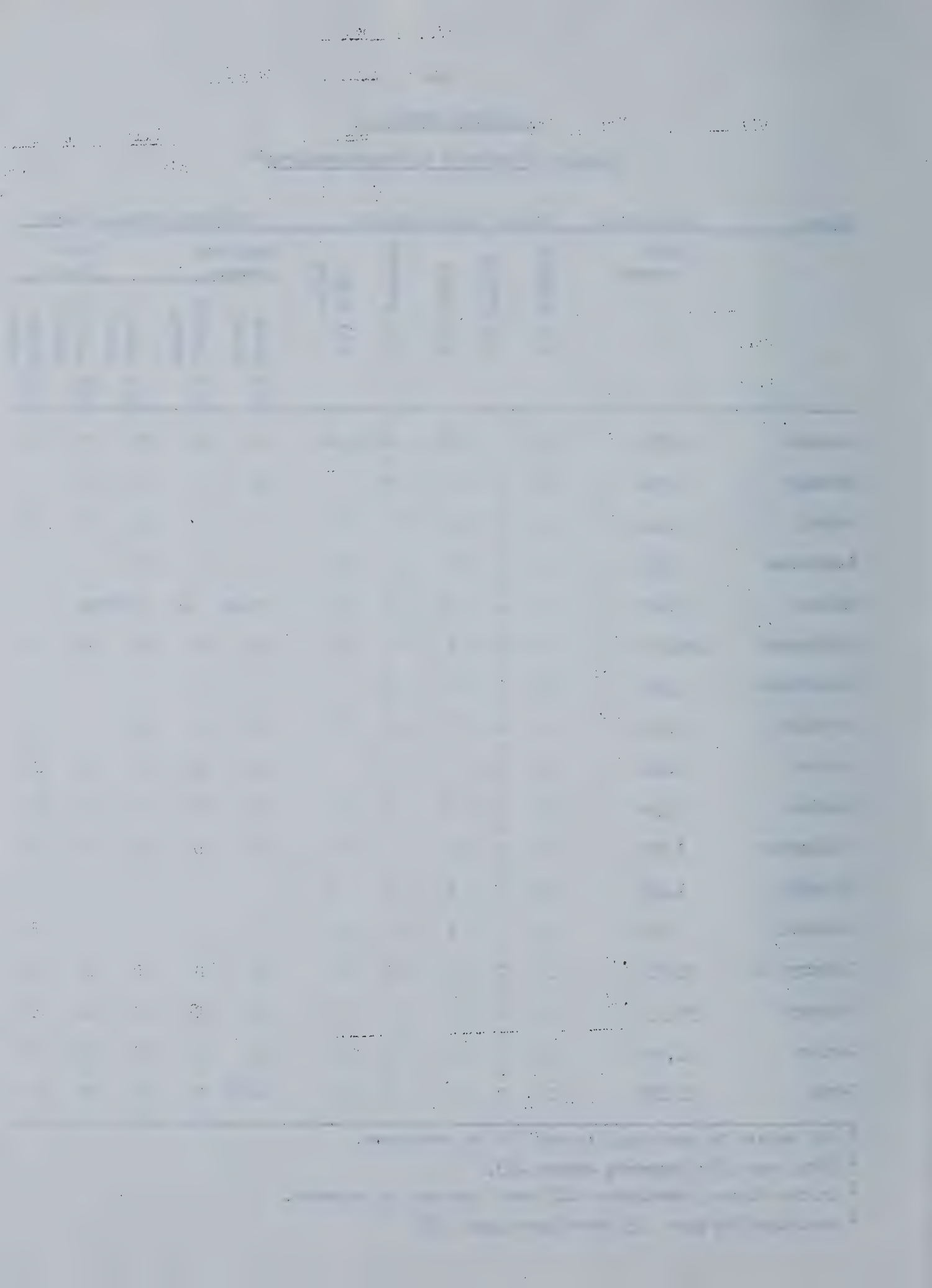
Towns	Population (1950 Census)	Street Installations					Utility Installations				
		(1) grading	(2) paving	(3) curbs	(4) gutters	(5) side-walks	Sanitary Sewers		Storm Sewers		
							(6) trunk lines	(7) lateral exten.	(8) trunk lines	(9) lateral exten.	(10) water mains
Ansonia	18,706	D	D	M ¹	M ¹	M ¹	M	M	D	D	D
Bethany	1,318	D	D	D	D		D				
Bethel	5,104	D	D	D	D	D			M	D	M
Bethlehem	1,015	D	D	D	D	D			D		
Bolton	1,279	D	D	D	D	D	None	in	Bolton		
Bridgeport	158,709	D	D	D	D	D	M	D	M	D	D
Brookfield	1,688	D	D	D	D						
Brooklyn	2,652	D	M	D	M	D	D	D	M		D
Canton	3,613	D	D		D		D	D	D	D	D
Clinton	2,466	M	M	M	M	M	D	D	D	D	D
Colchester	3,007	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Columbia	1,327	M	M	M	M	²					
Cornwall	896	D	D	D	D	D					D
Danbury (c)	30,713	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Danbury (t)	30,337	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Darien	11,767	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Derby	10,259	D	D	D	D	D	M D ³	D	M	M	D

* "M" refers to municipality and "D" to developer.

¹ City pays 1/3; property owners 2/3.

² In the future, developer will bear the cost of streets.

³ Municipality pays 1/3; developer pays 2/3.



Towns	Population (1950 Census)	Street Installations					Utility Installations				
		(1) grading	(2) paving	(3) curbs	(4) gutters	(5) side- walks	Sanitary Sewers		Storm Sewers		
							(6) trunk lines	(7) lateral exten.	(8) trunk lines	(9) lateral exten.	(10) water mains
East Granby	1,327	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
East Haddam	2,554	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
East Hartford	29,933	D	D	D	D	4	5	D	D	D	D
East Haven	12,212	D	D	D	D	D	6	6	D	D	D
Ellington	3,099	D	D	D	D		D	D	D	D	D
Fairfield	30,489	D	D	7	D	7	M ⁸	D	D	D	D ⁹
Farmington	7,026	D	D	D	D	D	10	10	D	D	
Glastonbury	8,818	D	D	M	D	D	11	11	D	D	D
Granby	2,588	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Greenwich	40,835	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Griswold	5,728	D	D	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Guilford	5,092	D	D	12	12	12	13	13	12	12	14
Hartford	177,397	D	M	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Harwinton	1,858	D									
Kent	1,392	M	M	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Killingly	10,015	M	M	M	M	D	M	D	M	M	D ¹⁵

4 Not required, if done at expense of the owner.

5 Metropolitan district.

6 None required.

7 When required -- at expense of developer.

8 Partial assessment.

9 Developer arranges with private utility.

10 Have none in subdivisions.

11 None -- sanitary sewers are installed only on existing roads.

12 None required.

13 No sanitary sewer system.

14 Limited water gird installed by private company.

15 Private water company.

Towns	Population (1950 Census)	Street Installations					Utility Installations							
		(1) grading	(2) paving	(3) curbs	(4) gutters	(5) side- walks	Sanitary Sewers		Storm Sewers					
							(6) trunk lines	(7) lateral exten.	(8) trunk lines	(9) lateral exten.	(10) water mains			
Litchfield	4,964	D	M	N	O	N	E	N	O	N	E	D	D	None
Madison	3,078	D	D	D	D	D			N	O	N	E		
Manchester	34,116	D	D	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	
Marlborough	901	D			D	D								
Meriden	44,088	D	D	D	D	D		M	D		D	D	D	
Middlebury	3,318	D	D		D				N	O	N	E		
Middlefield	1,983	D	M		DM						D	D		
Middletown	29,711	D	D	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	
Milford	26,870	D	D	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	¹⁶
Montville	4,766	D	D	D	D	D		NO	SUCH	SERVICES	HERE			
Naugatuck	17,455	D	D	D	D	D		M	¹⁷		D	D	D	¹⁸
New Britain	73,726	D	D	D	D	D		M	D		D	D	D	M
New Canaan	8,001	D	D	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	
New Haven	164,443	D	D	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	
New London	30,551	D	M	D		DM		D	D		D	D	D	M
North Haven	9,444	D	D	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	
Norwich	37,633	D	D	M	M	D		M	D		D	D	D	
Old Saybrook	2,499	D	M	D	D	D		D	D		D	D	D	
Orange	2,032	D	D								D			

16

Guaranteed payment by developer to private water company.

17

Optional; if by town an assessment is levied.

18

Not municipally owned.

Towns	Population (1950 Census)	Street Installations					Utility Installations				
		(1) grading	(2) paving	(3) curbs	(4) gutters	(5) side- walks	Sanitary Sewers		Storm Sewers		
							(6) trunk lines	(7) Lateral exten.	(8) trunk lines	(9) lateral exten.	(10) water mains
Oxford	2,037	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Plainville	9,994	D	D				D	D	D	D	D
Portland	5,186	D	D	M	D	M	M	D	M	D	D
Rockville	8,016	D	D						D	D	
Roxbury	740	D	D								
Salisbury	3,132	D	D	D	D	D	M	D	D	D	M
Seymour	7,832	D	D	D	D	D	19	19	19	19	D
Simsbury	4,822	D	D	D	D	20			D	D	
Somers	2,631	D	D	D	D	M	D	D	D	D	D
Southbury	3,828	D	D	D	D	D			D	D	D
Sprague	2,320	M	M		M		D	D	M	M	D
Stafford	6,471	D	M	D	D	DM	D	D	M	D	
Stamford	74,293	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Stonington	11,801	M	M		M						
Stratford	33,428	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
Thomaston	4,896	D	D	D	D	D			D	D	D
Thompson	5,585	M	M	D	M	D	D	D	M	D	21
Tolland	1,659	D	D						D	D	
Trumbull	8,641	D	D	D	D	D			D	D	D

19 Only private sewers.

20 None allowed.

21 Privately owned.

Towns	Population (1950 Census)	Street Installations					Utility Installations				
		(1) grading	(2) paving	(3) curbs	(4) gutters	(5) side- walks	Sanitary Sewers		Storm Sewers		
		(6) trunk lines	(7) lateral exten.	(8) trunk lines	(9) lateral exten.	(10) water mains					
Voluntown	824	N O N E I N T O W N									
Waterbury	104,477	D		M	D	M	M	M	M	M	M
West Hartford	44,402		M	22		22			M	M	
Weston	1,988	N o s u b d i v i s i o n r e g u l a t i o n s									
Westport	11,667	D	D	D	D	D			D	D	D
Wethersfield	12,533	D	D			D ²³	D	D	M	M	D
Willington	1,462	D	M	D	D		D	D	D	D	D
Windsor	11,833	D	D	D	D	D	M	D	D	D	D
Windsor Locks	6,221	D	D	D	D		D	D	D	D	D
Wolcott	3,553	D	D	D	D	D	D		M		
<u>Boroughs</u>											
Groton	7,036	D	M	D	M	DM	D	D	D	D	M
Litchfield	1,174	D	D	D	D	D	D	M	D	M	D
Stafford Springs		M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	

²² If installed, cost assessed against abutting owner.

²³ If town requests it.

Appendix Section II

Typical Regulations and Ordinances

STREET INSTALLATIONS

Grading and Paving

Bethlehem

1. Definition. "Street" shall include any street, highway, avenue, lane or right of way accepted by the town or other governmental unit as a highway, including also any private street or right of way giving access to more than two lots.

2. No street shall have a grade of less than 0.5 per cent nor more than 10 per cent. In any case where, owing to the topography of a parcel of land, strict adherence to the requirements of this Section is, in the judgment of the Commission, not physically possible, the Commission shall have the right within its sole discretion to vary the provisions of this Section in harmony with its general purpose and intent.

3. Unless otherwise specifically approved by the Commission, all new streets in any subdivision shall be paved to a width of 20 feet with 2-foot graded shoulders on each side. All topsoil must be removed from the road area and the sub-base shall be established with a good grade of fill. Upon this sub-base at least 12 inches of well compacted bankrun gravel shall be laid. Upon this base course, a finish course of at least 2 inches of fine gravel shall be applied and compacted to give a total final thickness of 14 inches of road measured after compacting. Immediately and before further use, it shall receive one coat of MCO Penetrating Oil at the rate of not less than 3/4 gallon per square yard, followed by a second coat at the rate of not less than 1/3 gallon per square yard. The second coat shall be well sanded. All pavement shall be crowned not less than 3/16 inch per foot of width of paving.

4. No gravel base shall be installed until the selectmen or their representative shall have inspected the sub-base and no oil shall be applied until approval by the selectmen or their representative.

Farmington

All roads to be accepted by the town of Farmington shall be constructed in accordance with the following specifications:

1. Construction Method: The construction of the road shall be performed in three steps, viz: formation of subgrade, application of the course of "bank run gravel", and application of the course of "processed gravel". If desired these steps may be done consecutively in sections. After each step is completed, no work is to be done on the next step until the town engineer has been notified that a step has been completed and he has had opportunity to check the grades and inspect the construction.

2. Subgrade: Subgrade shall be established parallel to the finished grade and ten (10) inches below it. It shall be thoroughly rolled and compacted and brought to a true grade before the first course of gravel is placed thereon. The minimum width of said subgrade shall be twenty-two (22) feet, but the town engineer may require the width to be increased if he deems it necessary. In constructing the subgrade where poor material is encountered, such as muck, etc., such material shall be removed and replaced with sand or gravel fill as directed by the town engineer.

3. Gravel Courses: The road shall be constructed of two (2) courses of gravel. The first course shall be constructed with "bank run gravel" consisting of sound, tough, durable particles of gravel free from thin shale, clay, loam, or vegetable matter, or stones more than three (3) inches in diameter. When thoroughly compacted

this first course shall not be less than six (6) inches in thickness. The second course shall consist of material known as medium processed gravel and in addition to the above requirements for "bank run gravel", shall meet the following graduation requirements:

<u>Screen Size</u>	<u>Amount Passing Screen</u>
1 - 1½"	100%
1"	95% - 100%
¾"	75% - 100%
½"	30% - 50%
#40	10% - 25%
#100	3% - 12%

When thoroughly compacted, this second course shall not be less than four (4) inches in thickness. Samples of the gravel proposed to be used, and the name of the gravel pit from which they came, shall be furnished to the town engineer for approval before work is begun. Crushed stone may be used in place of gravel if it meets the above requirements.

4. Paved Ditches: Where the longitudinal grade of the highway shall exceed 5%, a bituminous gutter shall be constructed wherever the roadway may be in a cut, in accordance with the specifications of the State Highway Department and to the approval of the town engineer. No such gutter shall run for a distance of more than five hundred (500) feet without provision for removal of water by a catch basin, lead-off, or other approved method.

5. Finished side slopes in a cut or fill shall be on a slope of at least two (2) feet horizontal to one (1) foot vertical. In rock cuts the slope shall be at least one-quarter (¼) foot horizontal to one (1) foot vertical.

6. Surfacing: Bituminous material for this work shall be either a tar or an asphaltic oil conforming to the requirements as given in Section 9.62 of the standard specifications of the Connecticut State Highway Department. The surface of the road shall be dragged, leaving the surface true to grade and line before the bituminous material is applied. When the surface is in proper condition, the first coating of ¾ gal. per square yard shall be applied, sanded, and the road again dragged and honed. After an interval of about ten days the second coating shall be applied at the rate of ½ gal. per square yard. After the second coating is applied a coating of sand shall be spread either by machine spreader or by hand and the road then dragged until the bituminous material and sand are thoroughly mixed and uniformly distributed over those portions of the roadway that have received an application of sand. The temperature of the material at the time of its application and the air temperature when the material is being applied shall be as specified by the town engineer.

Granby

1. Street shall include and mean streets, avenues, lanes, or any right of way dedicated to and legally accepted for the purpose of public travel.

2. Proposed streets shall be in harmony with existing or proposed principal thoroughfares as shown on the Town Plan of Development, especially in regard to safe intersections with such thoroughfares. Where the land to be subdivided does not abut an accepted town street or state road, the subdivider shall provide and construct a street from the subdivision to such a town or state road to be built in compliance with requirements and specifications applying to the construction of streets within the subdivision. Streets designated to accommodate presently or at any future time traffic other than that of the immediate neighborhood shall be indicated as secondary thoroughfares and if required by the Commission shall be not less than 60 feet wide.

Principal thoroughfares as indicated on the Town Plan shall be of such width as the Commission may deem necessary. All other streets shall be not less than 50 feet wide. Thoroughfares shall have grades not greater than 5% and curves of radii not less than 300 feet, measured at the center line. Other streets shall have grades not greater than 7%. No streets shall have grades less than 0.5%. Dead end streets shall terminate in a circle not less than 45 feet in radius to the outside of the right of way, and shall not exceed 600 feet in extreme length. Where, in the opinion of the Commission, such street is likely to be extended in the future to another outlet, this limitation of length may be waived. As far as practicable, streets shall follow natural contours.

3. All new streets shall be paved to a minimum width of 22 feet plus a 2 foot berm or shoulder on each side of the street. Where the topography of the land indicates the Commission may vary the requirements of a berm or shoulder. Streets now or in the future which may be used as secondary or principal thoroughfares may be required to have pavement of greater than the minimum width. Such requirements will be determined by the Commission after study of the preliminary plan of subdivision.

4. Unless otherwise specifically approved by the Commission, all new streets in any subdivision shall be constructed in accordance with the requirements and specifications of the Town of Granby in use at the time of application for approval of a subdivision. All streets shall have a crown of not less than 1/8 inch per foot of street width.

Litchfield

No street or highway shall be open to the public until the grade, layout, location, width and improvements of such street or highway shall have received the written approval of the Board of Selectmen and property survey map placed on file in the town clerk's office. Before such street or highway shall be submitted for the approval of the Board of Selectmen, the right of way shall be fifty feet in width; the travelled portion shall be gravelled to a width of not less than twenty (20) feet; with shoulders at least (2) feet in width on both sides of the travelled portion of such street or highway and that said street or highway shall have at least eighteen (18) inches of gravel, which shall conform to state specifications in all cases where said Board of Selectmen deem it necessary; that the gravel shall be graded ready for oiling; the said street or highway shall be adequately ditched for proper drainage and at least 15" reinforced concrete pipe culverts and standard catch basins must be installed at all points which said Board of Selectmen considers for proper drainage; and water rights shall be procured and furnished by the applicant to the Town of Litchfield and recorded in the public records. There shall be a circle 80' in diameter (built to the above specifications) at the end of any dead-end road in which road machinery and truck mounted snow plows may be turned around.

Meriden

Streets. The Planning Commission shall classify all streets as major, secondary or local, and shall determine the width and alignment of the right-of-way and of the paved roadway in the case of all streets not shown on the General Plan or on the official map. No privately owned strips which control future extensions of streets or access to land dedicated to public use shall be permitted.

1. Street Widths. Street widths shall be measured as the shortest distance between the lines delineating the right-of-way. No streets shall be less than 50 feet wide. Service alleys shall be at least 20 feet wide. The apportionment of the street width among paved roadway, and any planting strips and sidewalks, depending upon the character of the subdivision, shall be subject to the approval of the Commission.

2. Paved Roadways. The width of paved roadways shall be not less than 30 feet. The paved roadway of a service alley shall be at least 20 feet wide.

3. Street Alignment. When a street deflects in direction by more than ten degrees, the tangents shall be joined by a curve. The radius for the inner right-of-way shall be not less than 350 feet on major streets, 250 feet on minor streets and 100 feet on local streets. The curve of the outer street line shall be concentric with the inner street line. Wherever possible, reverse curves shall be separated with tangents at least 190 feet long. At all changes in direction the paved roadway shall maintain a visibility along the inside edge of at least 150 feet.

4. Dead End Streets. Dead end (cul-de-sac) streets shall not exceed 400 feet in length. A turn-around roadway with a minimum radius of 50 feet to the outside edge of the pavement shall be installed within a minimum radius of 60 feet. The paved roadway within the turn-around shall be not less than 20 feet in width. Dead end service alleys shall have a turn-around with an outer radius of at least 50 feet.

5. Street Grades. Street grades shall not exceed 5 per cent for major streets, 7 per cent for secondary streets and 10 per cent for local streets, nor shall they be less than one-half of one (.5) per cent. All changes in grade shall be connected by vertical curves with minimum horizontal length of 100 feet.

6. Street Intersections. Streets shall intersect at angles as close to 90 degrees as possible. In no case shall the angle of intersection be less than 30 degrees. In the case of multiple intersections, intersections between secondary and local streets and major streets and intersections involving angles smaller than 75 degrees, grades over 7 per cent or dangerous street jogs, special treatment may be required by the Commission. Intersecting property lines at street or service alley intersections shall be joined by a curve with a minimum radius of twenty feet.

Middlebury

The owner shall furnish to the Zoning Commission and to the Board of Selectmen for their approval, sufficient drawings of said road before work is started thereon. Each road shall be 50 feet wide as a right of way, and when completed shall have a minimum of 21 feet in width for travel purpose. Said road shall be so constructed as to provide adequate ditches for water drain; also culverts and as many drainage pipe lines as may be deemed necessary by the above boards. Said road shall also, when completed, have had two coats of oil applied to it. Said drawings must indicate:

1. The road bed thickness of rock.
2. The road bed thickness of fill.
3. The top dressing and crowning of road with eleven (11) inches of gravel.
4. Standard culverts and drain lines.
5. A complete drawing of road to indicate elevations, water turnoffs from ditches and where located.

Items No. 1 and No. 2 of the above are subject to the approval of the above boards in relation to thickness, as the location of the road has a direct bearing on these respective dimensions.

Middlefield

1. The following shall be considered a minimum standard. The town reserves the right to add to or elaborate on these requirements, at the discretion of its Board of Selectmen.

2. Before initiating work the applicant or developer shall submit a suitable plan of the proposed development showing all proposed roads or streets, established boundaries, and if dead end streets, their proposed turn around or rotary at the dead endstreet, their proposed finishing profile grades, and details of the

proposed drainage system, including all rights necessary for complete installation of such drainage system, also including proposed areas for four foot sidewalks, and utility service installations. These plans shall be of a permanent type and drawn to scale, approved by the Board of Selectmen, and if such road or street is accepted, all plans, or maps and right-of-ways then become the property of the town of Middlefield.

3. Proposed roads or streets shall conform with the following general requirements:

- a. Right of Way: A minimum width of fifty L.F. will be required.
- b. Width of Pavement: A minimum width of twenty-two L.F. shall be constructed between the limits of the right of way. Banks are to be sloped four to one.
- c. Boundaries: Permanent boundaries at both ends of roads or streets and at all points of angles.
- d. All roads to be presented to the town for acceptance must connect with existing public highways now in use.

4. Grading: All unsuitable material encountered in crusts shall be removed to a depth of one foot below subgrade.

The area so excavated shall be backfilled with gravel of a quality satisfactory to the Selectmen.

Embankments shall be constructed of earth, or a mixture of earth and rock deposited in successive lay for the full width of the embankment. In no case shall stumps, trees, sod, wood, or material which will not compact be placed in embankments.

5. Drainage: A complete drainage system shall be installed to provide for the natural drainage throughout the area of development, and for drainage conditions created by the construction of the road or street.

All pipes installed shall be of a size that will be sufficient to carry the volume of water for which it is intended. All drainage pipes and structures (catch basins, manholes and endwalls) shall be of a type consistent with standards established by the town and shown in the proposed plans.

6. Type of Pavement: The type of surface called for shall depend on the type and size of the development, taking into consideration the density and type of traffic that the street will eventually carry, and shall be in accord with types of similar streets throughout the town, or as required by the selectmen. The minimum type of surface that will be required shall be "Traffic Bound Gravel Surface," conforming with the following requirements:

7. Traffic Bound Gravel Surface

- a. Description: This surface shall consist of a one-course wearing surface, 22" in width and 8" in thickness after compaction, composed of gravel of the quality herein specified, constructed on the prepared subgrade in accordance with these specifications and in conformity with the approved lines and grades.
- b. Materials: The material for this work shall consist of sound, tough, durable particles of gravel mixed with approved binding material and shall be free from thin or elongated pieces, lumps of clay, loam or vegetable matter.
- c. Construction Methods: Before placing the material, the subgrade shall be shaped so that it is parallel to and of the specified depth below the approved finished surface. The material shall be spread on the subgrade in such courses as will compact readily under traffic. The spreading shall begin at the end of the project nearest the source of supply of the material in such a way that, as the work progresses, the material is trucked over that already in place so as to obtain as much

compaction as possible during construction. The material shall be wetted if necessary for early compaction, and shall be bladed, dragged and scraped to conform to the required cross section. All areas of segregated coarse or fine material shall be corrected or removed and replaced with well-graded material. If, after the material has spread and shaped, it is found that additional binder is necessary it shall be furnished and applied in the amount required. Such binder material shall be carefully and evenly incorporated with the gravel in place by scarifying, harrowing, brooming or other approved methods. As the work progresses the material already in place shall be dragged and re-shaped and before completion and final acceptance, shall be dragged and re-shaped for the entire length so as to leave the whole in a condition ready for surface treatment.

Southbury

Any road or street shown on the map of a sub-division or development layout, approved by the selectmen and on file with the town clerk as of the effective date of this ordinance shall meet the specifications of Section III below before acceptance by the town, provided that exception may be taken from any requirement of said specifications, the strict application of which would result in undue hardship.

Proposed roads or streets shall conform with the following general requirements:

1. Right of Way. A minimum of 50 linear feet will be required.
2. Building Line. No part of any building shall be nearer than 15 linear feet behind the right of way line.
3. Width of Pavement. A minimum width of 20 linear feet shall be constructed and centered between the limits of the right of way. Banks are to be sloped 4 to 1.
4. Grades. Street grades shall not be less than 0.5% nor more than 7%.
5. Cross Slope. The cross slope of the completed roadway surface shall be at the rate of $3/8$ " per foot, and shall conform to the arc of a circle. Where curbs are to be constructed they shall in general be set at the center line grade, but not to exceed an exposed height of 8" at the face of the curb.
6. Grading. All unsuitable material encountered in cuts shall be removed to a depth of one foot below subgrade. The area so excavated shall be backfilled with gravel of a quality satisfactory to the selectmen. Where rock is encountered it shall be removed to a depth of one foot below subgrade, and the area backfilled with gravel. Embankments shall be constructed of earth or a mixture of earth and rock deposited in successive layers for the full width of the embankment. In no case shall stumps, trees, sod, weeds or material which will not compact be placed in embankments.
7. Type of Pavement. The type of surface called for shall depend on the type and size of the development, taking into consideration the density and type of traffic that the street will eventually carry, and shall be in accord with similar streets thru the town or as required by the selectmen. The minimum type of surface that will be required shall be "Traffic Bound Gravel Surface", conforming with the following requirements:
8. Traffic Bound Gravel Surface.
 - a. Description. This surface shall consist of a one-course wearing surface 20' in width and 8 inches in thickness after compaction, composed of gravel of the quality herein specified, constructed on the prepared subgrade in accordance with these specifications and in conformity with the approved lines and grades.

- b. Material. The material for this work shall consist of sound, though durable, particles of gravel mixed with approved binding material and shall be free from thin or elongated pieces, lumps of clay, loam or vegetable matter. The material may be bank run or the binder may be added and incorporated by approved methods as herein specified. The material shall meet the following requirements:

Sieve Size	<u>Square</u> 3½"	<u>Opening</u> ¼"	<u>Sieves</u> No. 40
Per Cent Passing	100	30 - 50	10 - 30

- c. Construction Methods. Before placing the material the subgrade shall be shaped so that it is parallel to and the specified depth below the approved finished surface. The material shall be spread on the subgrade in such courses as will compact readily under traffic. The spreading shall begin at the end of the project nearest the source of supply of the material in such a way that, as the work progresses, the material is trucked over that already in place so as to obtain as much compaction as possible during construction. The material shall be wetted if necessary for early compaction and shall be bladed, dragged and scraped to conform to the required cross-section. All areas of segregated coarse or fine material shall be corrected or removed and replaced with well graded material.

If, after the material has been spread and shaped, it is found that additional binder is necessary, it shall be furnished and applied in the amount required. Such binder material shall be carefully and evenly incorporated with the gravel in place by scarifying, harrowing, brooming or other approved methods. As the work progresses the material already in place shall be dragged and reshaped and before completion and final acceptance, shall be dragged and reshaped for the entire length and shall be surface treated.

Curbs, Gutters, Sidewalks

Fairfield

1. Street Trees: Street trees shall be planted on both sides of any street to be dedicated to the town. Trees shall be spaced approximately 50 feet apart, subject to variations made necessary by driveways, street corners and walks, and shall be located a minimum of 3 feet from the edge of the pavement and 7 feet from the street line. Trees to be planted shall be 1 3/4 inch caliper or larger and shall have a minimum height of 10 feet. The kind of tree shall be subject to the approval of the Department of Public Works and shall not include evergreens, low branching trees, trees which are disease bearing or cause damage to sewers, or trees which create a traffic hazard. Where the trees may interfere with utility poles and wires, the Department of Public Works may permit the location of required trees within the front 10 feet of the proposed lots. Trees shall be planted in accordance with the approved manner and conditions of the Department of Public Works. Existing trees along the proposed street which conform to these requirements may be substituted for new trees.

2. Sidewalks: The Commission may require the installation of sidewalks on secondary thoroughfares, major thoroughfares and parkways, in pedestrian easements, on streets in the vicinity of school and playgrounds and in other places deemed proper by the Commission. Construction plans for sidewalks shall be submitted and shall be shown on the plan and profile drawings required in Paragraph 1,2,3. Sidewalks shall be a minimum of 4 feet in width and shall be located within the street lines with one edge abutting the street line. The sidewalk shall be laid on a 5 inch bank run gravel base, tamped and rolled, and shall be constructed of air-entrained concrete, 4 inches thick, having an ultimate strength of 2,500 pounds per

square inch and having expansion joints with premoulded fillers spaced every 20 feet.

Greenwich

1. Sidewalks. Paved sidewalks shall be provided as follows:

- a. In business zones concrete sidewalks at least 10 feet wide shall be provided on both sides of streets.
- b. In R-MF zones concrete or asphalt sidewalks at least 4 feet wide shall be provided on both sides of streets.
- c. In R-6 and R-7 zones concrete or asphalt sidewalks at least 4 feet wide shall be provided on at least one side of streets.
- d. In all other zones no sidewalks shall be required.

2. Street Trees. Street trees shall be provided, either by preserving existing trees or by planting new ones of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 inches caliper in all areas other than business zones. Such trees shall be located on both sides of the street right-of-way and at intervals of approximately 50 feet, subject to location of drives, street intersections, or other features of the subdivision. They shall be of varieties approved by the town Tree Warden, and the method of planting shall be in accordance with instructions issued by him.

In areas where sidewalks are required as above set forth new trees shall be located 5 feet outside the street property line. In all other areas they may be located within the street right-of-way as directed by the town Tree Warden. In general, the street right-of-way shall be cleared of all other existing trees, but occasional existing trees within the street right-of-way may be preserved on approval by the town Tree Warden.

3. Construction Standards. Graded width and sidewalk areas. In business zones, R-MF, R-6, R-7, R-12 and R-20 zones streets shall be graded to full width. Grade at the curb line shall be 7 inches above pavement grade at the curb line. The sidewalk area shall slope up $\frac{1}{2}$ inch per foot from the curb line, and any part of the sidewalk area not used for paved sidewalk shall be seeded to grass.

In RA-4, RA-2, and RA-1 zones the width of grading shall be sufficient to provide for the required pavement width, for shoulders at least 3 feet wide, for any necessary gutters, and for the required sight distance.

Stratford

1. From and after the passage of this Ordinance no person, firm or corporation shall construct in any street in the Town of Stratford any driveway approach or any curb, walk or combined curb-and-gutter without first obtaining a permit to do so from the Town Engineer, nor shall any construction work thereon be done until such a permit has been issued to the applicant. Such permit shall be good only for construction work which conforms to the lines and grades, if any, established and given by the Town Engineer, and any deviation from said line and grade shall be deemed construction without a permit. A permit shall be required for each separate piece of property. For the purposes of this Ordinance, "driveway approach" shall mean any and every means of ingress and egress from a public highway to adjoining property, whether improved or in its natural state.

2. The provisions of this Ordinance shall not prevent the making without such permit, of repairs to any existing curbs, walks, combined curbs-and-gutters or driveway approaches, provided the requirement of Section 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 are hereof complied with.

3. Except as hereinafter provided, all driveway approaches shall be limited to a maximum width of twenty (20) feet at the sidewalk, or, if there is no sidewalk, at such point as the Town Engineer shall then or later designate, and no two driveway approaches for the same property shall be closer together, measured along the sidewalk or street line than 25 feet at their closest limits. All driveway approaches for business and industrial premises shall have raised curbs on both sides extending from the roadway to the sidewalk, or, if there is no sidewalk to such point as the

Town Engineer shall then or later designate. Such raised curbs shall be so placed that the requirement of this section will not be violated by vehicular traffic driving across or over land outside the limits of the driveway proper.

4. If the physical condition of any property is such, that, in the opinion of the Chief of Police, ingress or egress are likely to be made at points other than by the designated driveway approaches, then a curb shall be required, without cost to or claim against the Town of Stratford therefor, which shall be parallel with the street or property lines and two feet inside the sidewalk, or if there be no sidewalk, at such other point as the Town Engineer may designate. Such curb shall extend across such portion of the frontage of the property as will effectively prevent, to the satisfaction of the Chief of Police, any ingress or egress to said property at any points other than by the designated driveway approaches. If parking space is provided or parking allowed between the sidewalk and the traveled portion of the road, a curbing shall be required, without cost or claim against the Town therefor, two feet outside the sidewalk, where, in the opinion of the Chief of Police, such would be necessary to prevent vehicles from driving upon the sidewalk. However, if the sidewalk is seven (7) feet or more in width, the curbing provided for in this section may be placed immediately against the sidewalk.

5. All curb corners at street intersections shall be maintained as safety zones for pedestrians. A curb corner shall constitute an area as follows: (1) the area lying between the street lines extended, where the angle between said extended street lines is ninety (90) degrees or greater; or (2) the area lying between lines drawn at right angles to the street lines at the point of intersection of said street lines, where the angle between the street lines extended is less than ninety (90) degrees. There shall be no lowering of the curb nor shall any driveway approach encroach within the bounds of any curb corner.

UTILITY INSTALLATIONS

Sanitary Sewers and Storm Sewers

Darien

Storm Water Sewers and Pipe Culverts

1. Material: Pipe shall be Reinforced Concrete Pipe complying with State of Connecticut standard specification.

2. Construction Details: The trench shall be excavated to the width, depth, and grade as given by the subdividing Engineer.

If in the opinion of the Engineer the material in the bottom of the excavation is not suitable the trench shall be dug below grade to such a depth as ordered, backfilled with gravel, and thoroughly compacted to insure an unyielding foundation. In case rock occurs in the bottom of the trench it shall be excavated below grade and the trench backfilled with suitable material so that there will be at least a six inch (6") cushion between the rock and all portions of the pipe.

The pipe shall be laid beginning at the lower end of the trench with the bell end up grade.

The pipe shall be laid with open joints unless otherwise specified by the Engineer.

3. Backfilling: The material placed by hand up to one foot (1') above the top of the pipe shall be selected, containing no stones larger than six inches (6") in greatest dimension, and shall be brought up simultaneously on each side of the pipe, and thoroughly compacted.

The pipe trench shall be completely filled in layers not to exceed eight inches (8") in loose thickness. Each layer shall be thoroughly tamped over the full width of the trench.

4. Catch Basins and Manholes

- a. Materials: Catch basins and manholes shall be constructed of Plasticrete 6" Radial Manhole Bloc ASTM C139-39 or equal.
Catch Basin Frame and Grate shall be Town of Darien standard or equal (see attached print).
Manhole head and cover shall be Town of Darien standard or equal (see attached print).
- b. Construction Details: A concrete base shall not be required but the initial course of block must be placed on a level, solid earth bearing.
The bottom of the initial course shall be 18" below the lowest pipe invert in the catch basin or manhole.
The inside diameter of all catch basins and manholes 4 feet in height or over, shall be 4 feet. The inside diameter will be decreased 4 inches for every 6" less than 4 feet in height.
Catch basins and manholes shall be constructed with open joints or dry construction unless otherwise directed by the Engineer.
The covers of all manholes and catch basins shall be brought accurately to the given grade and cemented in place.

Fairfield

Storm Drainage Design: Storm drainage shall be provided and designed in accordance with the following standards:

1. Pipe: Sufficient pipe shall be installed within the subdivision to carry existing water courses and to drain the proposed roads and roads which may reasonably be expected to be constructed at some future date on adjoining property which normally drains across the area of the proposed subdivision. If in its judgment there will be no substantial danger from soil erosion or danger to the public health and safety, the Commission may permit the discharge of rivers and large streams in their natural courses and may permit the discharge of storm water and established water courses in open ditches across proposed lots of one acre or larger. All pipe shall be of such diameter, not less than 12 inches, as will in the judgment of the Town Engineer be sufficient to properly carry storm water expected to enter the pipe from the proposed subdivision and from other properties when developed which normally drain across the area of the proposed subdivision. The minimum slope for 12 inch pipe shall be 0.4%.
2. Manholes: Manholes shall be provided at each change in direction or grade of the pipe and shall not be spaced more than 400 feet apart.
3. Catch Basins: Catch basins shall be provided in order that surface water will not travel without interception more than 400 feet on streets with grades up to and including 5% and not more than 300 feet on streets with grades over 5%. Each catch basin shall be connected directly to a manhole.
4. Discharge: The discharge of all storm water shall be into suitable streams or rivers or into Town drains with adequate capacity to carry the additional water. Where the discharge shall be into private property adjoining the proposed subdivision proper easements and discharge rights shall be secured by the applicant for the Town before approval of the final map and acceptance of the drainage plan.
5. Private Streets: Proper drainage and discharge shall be provided, in accordance with the standards established herein, at the intersection of a private street with an accepted street in order that the accepted street will be protected from flooding and erosion.
6. Storm Drainage Construction: The storm drainage system shall be constructed in accordance with the following standards and procedure:
 6. Pipe: All pipe used shall be of reinforced concrete meeting State Highway Department specification.
 7. Joints: The joints of all pipe shall be shoved tight. Pipe laid in sandy, silty or other soil in which, in the judgment of the Town Engineer, there is danger of washing or caveins, shall have joints thoroughly sealed with 1.3 concrete mortar.
 8. Catch Basins and Manholes: Catch basins and manholes shall be constructed in

accordance with the Town Department of Public Works plans.

9. Construction Procedure: All pipe shall be laid to line and grade as shown on approved drainage plans and profiles. Line and grade stakes shall be maintained in good order until the work has been inspected and approved by the Town Engineer or Superintendent of Highways. Three batter boards shall be maintained in place at all times when laying pipe and shall not be spaced more than 30 feet apart. No pipe shall be backfilled until inspected and approved by the Town Engineer or Superintendent of Highways.

10. Sanitary Sewers: Sanitary sewers shall be installed in or near areas served by Town sanitary sewers. Plans shall be submitted to and approved by the Fairfield Sewer Commission and the installation of sanitary sewers shall be in accordance with the design standards of the Fairfield sanitary sewer system. No house connections shall be installed except in accordance with the regulations of the Fairfield Sewer Commission.

New Canaan

1. Sewerage: In the event that the proposed subdivision is capable of being sewerred or connected with a public sewerage system such disposal shall be required, including the installation of laterals to the street line of each lot in the proposed subdivision.

2. Storm Sewage: When land included in a proposed subdivision shall be of such nature as to require the disposition of storm sewage, provision for such disposal must be incorporated in the final plan.

Simsbury

1. When in the opinion of the Commission, it is deemed necessary to install sewer and water facilities, the Commission shall require that they be installed by the developer in accordance with detailed plans and specifications to the satisfaction of the Commission.

2. Street improvements, drainage, sewer and water supply and any other improvements required by the Commission, shall be installed to the satisfaction of the Board of Selectmen before final approval shall be given to any subdivision unless an approved bond is posted in lieu of construction.

Stamford

1. Sewer Lines: Where a public sanitary sewer main is reasonably accessible, the subdivider shall connect with such sanitary sewer and provide mains reasonably accessible to each lot.

2. Where a public sanitary sewer main is not reasonably accessible proper provision shall be made for the disposal of sanitary sewage by a method to be approved by the Health Department.

3. Where a public sanitary sewer main is not reasonably accessible, but where the plans for the sanitary sewer system of the district in which the subdivision is located, have been prepared by the City Engineer and funds appropriated for construction, the subdivider shall install sewers in conformity with such plans, although a connection with an existing main may not be immediately practicable. In such cases, and until such connection is made with the sewer system of the district, the subdivider shall provide for the disposal of sanitary sewage by a method to be approved by the Health Department.

Trumbull

1. All storm drains required by good construction practice, as specified by the Board of Selectmen, shall be built. Storm drains shall include all necessary pipe

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INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC SERVICE UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

STORRS, CONNECTICUT

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March, 1951

PARKING IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

No local problem causes greater or more widespread concern than the lack of adequate, convenient parking space. Parking difficulties are not confined to large metropolitan areas but exist in towns and cities of all sizes and in all sections of the country.

The Connecticut Problem

Connecticut's parking problem is becoming more and more important because the size of its motoring public has been steadily increasing. In 1948 there were 15 per cent more motor vehicles on Connecticut's highways than in the highest previous year, 1941. By the end of 1949 there were nearly 610,000 passenger autos and 800,000 licensed operators registered with the State Department of Motor Vehicles. The year 1950 showed a continued rise and the release of the 1951 figures will reveal an even greater number.

This jump in the number of motor vehicles and consequent gain in motor vehicle travel has increased the pressure for more and better parking facilities. Driving a car, in most cases, is not an end in itself. The objective is to get somewhere, and this means finding a nearby place to park — very often in a downtown area.

In an attempt to determine some of the parking problems and solutions in Connecticut's towns and cities, a questionnaire was sent to 78 Connecticut local governmental units.

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Summary of Communities Receiving Questionnaire on Parking

Population Group	Number of Localities In Group	Number Questioned	Number Answered
Over 50,000	6	6	6
25,000-50,000	17	17	15
10,000-25,000	20	20	14
Below 10,000	126	35	27
Totals:	169	78	62

Of the towns and cities answering the questionnaire, forty-eight recognize that they are faced with serious parking problems in their downtown areas. These include: Hartford, Bridgeport, Waterbury, Stamford, New Britain, Norwalk, West Hartford, Greenwich, Norwich, Bristol, West Haven, Fairfield, New London, Middletown, Hamden, Milford, Naugatuck, Wallingford, Willimantic, Southington, Shelton, Windsor, Westport, Darien, Watertown, Winsted, Rockville, Plainville, Putnam, Newington, Glastonbury, New Canaan, Stafford, New Milford, Bethel, Thomaston, Suffield, Simsbury, Ridgefield, East Lyme, Canton, Essex, Salisbury, Madison, Old Saybrook, Clinton and Old Lyme. Officials in New Haven, Manchester, Stratford, Danbury, East Hartford, Wethersfield, Seymour, Newtown, Berlin, Farmington, Colchester and North Canaan report no parking problem exists at present in their communities.

These same officials were asked to estimate the percentage of all persons entering the downtown areas that are ordinarily carried by private automobiles.

Percentage of People Entering Downtown Area in Private Automobiles

Percentage	Number of Towns and Cities
90 - 99	22
80 - 89	9
70 - 79	9
60 - 69	2
50 - 59	2
40 - 49	1
Below 40	0

Effects of the Parking Problem

Inadequate parking facilities can result in several direct ill-effects to any locality. It might mean a:

- (1) loss of business and population to outlying areas,
- (2) drop in traffic safety.

Economic Effects

As passengers and drivers continually experience loss of time and inconvenience through parking difficulties, they tend to look for faster, more pleasant parking areas. Business establishments soon follow this trend and with them go thousands of dollars in tax revenues. A quick comparison of 1950 census data with 1940 figures shows that some of the state's larger towns and cities have had a relatively small increase in population while surrounding and outlying localities have gained anywhere from 15 to 40 per cent. The summary of types and numbers of new business establishments is equally startling.

Traffic Safety

A digest of the latest accident figures compiled by the Department of Motor Vehicles reveals that over half of the state's traffic accidents occur at urban intersections or urban straightaways even though these locations represent a relatively small portion of the total miles of the streets and highways. Also, more accidents take place during the six one hour periods between noon and six p.m. than at any other time. Both statistics point to downtown parking congestion as one of the most likely contributors to poor traffic safety

Parking Surveys

Before any town or city can cope adequately with transportation troubles there is need for an up-to-date analysis of traffic facts. These facts are necessary not only for parking solutions but also for planning and handling

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at intersections or urban straightways even though these locations
occupy a relatively small portion of the total miles of the streets and high-
ways. The most accidents take place during the six one hour periods between
four and five p.m. and six and seven p.m. and are almost entirely
attributable to the fact that the great bulk of the traffic is going to the

business district and the surrounding areas. The fact that the
business district is the center of the state's traffic activity is
evident not only from the accident figures but also from the fact that

highway construction as well as location and design of other transportation improvements.

Made in Twenty-four Towns

Twenty-four towns and cities have had parking or transportation surveys in the last ten years. These include:

Connecticut Towns and Cities Having Recent Parking Surveys

Town or City	Year Completed
Hartford	Not Stated
New Haven	1946
Stamford	1950
New Britain	1942
Greenwich	1949
Norwich	1950
Bristol	1950
Manchester	1947
West Haven	1950
East Hartford	1945
Milford	1949
Wallingford	1951
Willimantic	1950
Southington	1950
Windsor	1950
Westport	1947
Watertown	1950
Putnam	1946
New Canaan	1948
New Milford	1949
Canton	1948
Essex	Not Stated
Clinton	1948
Old Lyme	1941

Financing Surveys

In many cases these studies have been undertaken or partially supported by Chambers of Commerce, retailers and other civic groups. There is at least one instance of the State Highway Department completing a parking survey of a particular city. This varied sponsorship indicates that in one way or another the state, the city or town, property owners and business men all have a stake in solving parking problems.

What They Should Accomplish

Most parking studies attempt to find out where vehicles come from, their destination, and in what quantity and for what length of time they stay at various places. On the basis of such studies parkers usually are of five general types: (1) short-time, (2) long-time, (3) recreational, (4) employee, or (5) commercial loading and unloading. These can be taken care of by:

- (1) curb parking spaces,
- (2) off-street parking facilities,
- (3) zoning for off-street parking.

All of these devices are being used by Connecticut's towns and cities.

Curb Parking

Any system of curb parking is bound to reduce street capacity and penalize the majority of street users. In doing so it tends to increase accidents and to cause fire hazards.

Since the amount of curb parking space in any community is limited, in order to provide for maximum public safety and convenience it is necessary to resort to regulations. These may take form as:

- (1) time-limit parking,
- (2) prohibiting parking at certain hours,
- (3) parking meters,
- (4) curb loading zones.

Regulations

Almost every Connecticut town has regulations concerning where cars may park and the length of time they may park in certain areas.¹ These regulations are promulgated by a variety of officials.

1. Sections 2509, 2525, 2526.

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these may take form as:

(1) one-way curb parking

(2) one-way curb parking with one-way traffic

(3) one-way curb parking

(4) one-way curb parking

may park in certain areas. These regulations are

Officials Responsible for Parking Regulations and Facilities

Official or Agency	Number of Towns
Board of Selectmen	14
Superintendent or Chief of Police	37
Traffic Engineer or Department	1
Others	7

Any regulation to be effective must be adequately enforced.¹ The general pattern is either (1) foot patrols, (2) motor patrol, or (3) towing away and impounding cars.

Methods of Enforcing Parking Regulations

Means	Number of Towns Using
Foot Patrol	44
Motorized Patrol	28
Towing Away and Impounding	5

Parking Meters

By 1950 there were at least 2,250 municipalities in the United States using parking meters. Sixteen Connecticut cities and towns reported having some 9,600 meters which produce approximately \$500,000 in revenue each year.

Number of and Revenue From Parking Meters

Town or City	Number of Meters	Annual Revenue
Hartford	1,300	\$65,000
New Haven	1,117	85,000
Bridgeport	1,762	85,000
Waterbury	700	40,000
Stamford	600	40,000
New Britain	887	38,739
Norwich	350	Not Stated

Number of and Revenue From Parking Meters, Cont.

Town or City	Number of Meters	Annual Revenue
Manchester	420	\$25,000
West Haven	375	Recently Installed
Danbury	540	37,000
Middletown	600	40,000
Naugatuck	190	6,000
Willimantic	370	Not Stated
Shelton	225	10,000
Putnam	186	5,700
Seymour	108	3,000

Parking meters can generally be counted on to insure:

- (1) rapid turn-over in the number of parkers,
- (2) time-limits for the majority of parkers,
- (3) elimination of long-time parkers,
- (4) efficient use of existing curb parking space.

In addition, meters produce revenue.

Special funds to which all excess revenues go after payments for meters have been made are set up in four towns.¹ These funds are used to acquire additional parking space or improve existing installations.

Off - Street Parking

Parking lots, parking garages and fringe parking areas provide the most common types of off - street parking facilities. These may be publicly owned and operated or set up and maintained on a cooperative basis. They vary from complex fire-proof structures to rather rough vacant lots.

Public Parking Lots

Connecticut's local governments have stepped into the parking business mainly because of the pressing need for additional parking spaces. Parking lots are especially suited to public ownership because only a unit of government can

1. Manchester, Willimantic, Putnam, Seymour.

acquire land by eminent domain, and only by public ownership can the permanency of these added spaces be assured.

Public lots may be financed through:

- (1) general fund (property taxes),
- (2) special or benefit assessments,
- (3) excess parking meter revenues,
- (4) parking fees at public lots.

Of the thirty-five Connecticut localities reporting public parking lots all have financed their acquisition and improvement through the general fund. Excess parking meter revenues go toward improving parking lots in five towns.

The location of public lots depends a good deal on the foresight and initiative local administrators use in selecting and acquiring sites. To be successful, it is generally agreed that a parking lot must be centrally located and have certain minimum physical characteristics.

All but one of Connecticut's public parking lots are operated on a self-park basis. This method presents two outstanding advantages:

- (1) the municipality is not liable for damage, and
- (2) it is inexpensive.

The rates charged by Connecticut communities vary from five cents to fifteen cents per hour. Twenty-four towns have public lots where no charge is made for parking.

Commercial Parking Lots

Commercial parking lots are an important consideration in any municipality's parking plans. They are of special importance around transportation terminals, recreational structures, major business establishments and industrial plants. Most urban areas have a number of commercial parking lots.

of these other spaces be assured.

These may be financed through:

- (1) General Fund
- (2) Special Assessments
- (3) Sales Tax
- (4) Parking Fees at Public Lots.

Five out of five Connecticut localities reporting public parking lots all have increased their acquisition and improvement through the general fund. Excess revenues go toward improving parking lots in five towns.

The location of public lots depends a good deal on the foresight and initiative of local administrators in selecting and acquiring sites. To be successful, it is generally agreed that a parking lot must be centrally located and have convenient access to the main thoroughfares.

All but one of Connecticut's public parking lots are operated on a self-pay basis. This method presents two outstanding advantages:

- (1) The municipality is not liable for damage, and
- (2) It is inexpensive.

As shown in the table by Connecticut communities vary from five cents to fifteen cents per hour. Fourteen towns have public lots where no charge is made for parking.

General Parking Lots

General parking lots are an important consideration in any municipality's planning. They are of great importance around transportation terminals, commercial districts, and public buildings. They are also important in the development of new areas.

Number of Commercial Parking Lots in Connecticut Municipalities

Town	Number of Lots (or spaces)
Hartford	4492 (spaces)
New Haven	38
Bridgeport	53
Waterbury	900 (spaces)
New Britain	9
Norwalk	5
Greenwich	889 (spaces)
Norwich	6
Bristol	350 (spaces)
Manchester	200 (spaces)
West Haven	21
Fairfield	100 (spaces)
Middletown	600 (spaces)
Hamden	14
Milford	2
Naugatuck	75 (spaces)
Willimantic	506 (spaces)
Westport	7
Watertown	2
Plainville	2
Glastonbury	50 (spaces)
New Canaan	130 (spaces)
Stratford	(Not Stated)
Simsbury	10
East Lyme	2
Madison	1
Clinton	1
Old Lyme	3

The presence of commercial lots brings up the problem of regulating their activities in the best interests of the public -- both as parkers and as property owners. Lots may be regulated by:

- (1) licensing of lots,
- (2) licensing of employees,
- (3) requiring special fire equipment,
- (4) establishing minimum insurance coverage,
- (5) strict physical requirements.

Only six localities in Connecticut have any regulations over commercial lots.

Table 1. Parking Lots in Connecticut Municipalities

Number of Lots (or spaces)	Year
1492 (spaces)	1970
83	1971
200 (spaces)	1972
1	1973
303 (spaces)	1974
0	1975
100 (spaces)	1976
21	1977
600 (spaces)	1978
14	1979
2	1980
27 (spaces)	1981
206 (spaces)	1982
1	1983
1	1984
1 (spaces)	1985
1 (spaces)	1986
1 (spaces)	1987
10	1988
2	1989
1	1990
1	1991
1	1992
1	1993

The number of parking spaces in each lot is reported in the table. The number of parking spaces in the lot is reported in the table. The number of parking spaces in the lot is reported in the table.

- (1) Licensing of lots,
- (2) Licensing of employees,
- (3) Licensing of special fire equipment,
- (4) Licensing of other special equipment,
- (5) Licensing of other special equipment,

Regulations Governing Commercial Parking Lots

Towns and Cities	Regulations Concerning:
Hartford, West Haven	Minimum Fire Fighting Equipment
Bridgeport, East Hartford, Milford, Putnam	Size and Type of Signs
West Haven	Insurance Requirements
East Hartford	Physical Layout

Cooperative Off-Street Parking Lots

In many jurisdictions private business concerns and organizations have cooperated with the local government in establishing off-street parking lots. Sometimes public cooperation takes the form of tax exemptions, monetary contributions, or the equipment, materials and labor for maintaining these installations.

Cooperative arrangements are extremely popular in Connecticut.

Number of Cooperative Parking Lots in Connecticut Localities

Town or City	Number of Cooperative Lots (Or Spaces)
New Haven	23
West Hartford	620 (spaces)
Norwich	25
Stratford	(Not Stated)
Fairfield	200 (spaces)
Milford	4
Naugatuck	200 (spaces)
Wallingford	50 (spaces)
Wethersfield	2
Winsted	2
Putnam	120 (spaces)
Seymour	3
Simsbury	1
East Lyme	2
Old Saybrook	150 (spaces)
North Canaan	2

Parking Garages

Parking garages are one means of handling the parking problem that has been almost entirely overlooked by Connecticut communities.¹ Most garages are able to park more cars in a given area than any other type of facility, rapidly absorb and deliver a large number of vehicles per hour and provide a permanent, safe and reliable storage place for long-time parkers. However, garage sites are usually expensive and the structures themselves call for large investments.

It should be pointed out that several localities are studying the feasibility of parking garages. A notable example is Hartford where the voters recently approved issuing bonds for the construction of one such unit.

Fringe Parking Lots

Eight Connecticut towns and cities have fringe parking lots, six of which are public lots. In other states, lack of use has caused many cities to discontinue fringe parking efforts.

The problems of lot location and use are extremely complex. Lots must be coordinated with transit facilities and schedules. To be of maximum utility they should be scattered around the perimeter of the business area at several different locations. Even with all these inducements it is usually necessary to carry on an intensive "selling" campaign to get drivers to recognize their utility.

Zoning for Off-Street Parking

It is becoming increasingly obvious that the need for increased parking spaces is growing so fast that no one solution completely fills the bill. One of the convenient instruments which many towns and cities have begun to adopt as a means of heading off further problems is that of zoning for off-street parking.

1. Private parking garages are located in Hartford, New Haven, Waterbury, Norwich, West Haven, Wallingford, Westport, New Canaan, Simsbury,

Public Parking

Public parking is one of the most important factors in the development of a city. It is a factor which is often overlooked, but which is of great importance. The public parking problem is one of the most serious in the city of New York. It is a problem which has caused many cities to suffer. The public parking problem is one of the most serious in the city of New York. It is a problem which has caused many cities to suffer. The public parking problem is one of the most serious in the city of New York. It is a problem which has caused many cities to suffer.

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Some commonly accepted standards include:

Zoning Regulations Requiring Off-Street Parking

One car space (200 sq. ft.) is required for each unit listed below.

Regulated Structure	American Auto Association	Regional Planning Authority, So. Central Committee
Single Family Dwelling	1 Family Unit	1 Family Unit
Multiple Family Dwelling	1½ Family Unit	-----
Theaters, Auditoriums, Stadiums, etc.	7 seats	8 seats
Retail Business	400 sq. ft. floor space	250 sq.ft. - 1st. floor 500 sq.ft. - upper floors
Office Building	460 sq. ft. floor space	250 sq.ft. - 1st. floor 500 sq.ft. - upper floors
Restaurants	50 sq. ft. patron area 100 sq. ft. total area	200 sq. ft.
Hotels	4 guest rooms	3 guest rooms
Industrial Buildings	3 employees, or 750 sq.ft. floor space	3 employees

On the whole most Connecticut towns and cities have adopted only a minimum number of established zoning standards for a few of these types of structures.

Connecticut Towns and Cities with Zoning Regulations Requiring Off-Street Parking Space

Town or City	Structure Regulated
Hartford	Single family dwellings
New Haven	Single family dwellings
West Hartford	Theaters, auditoriums, stadiums, restaurants, business establishments, office buildings, hotels.

Connecticut Towns and Cities with Zoning Regulations
Regulating Off-Street Parking Space
(Continued)

Town or City	Structure Regulated
Greenwich	All structures but single family dwellings.
Manchester	All structures but single family dwellings.
Stratford	Theaters.
West Haven	Single family dwellings, multiple family dwellings, office and business establishments.
Milford	All structures.
Wethersfield	Single family dwelling, multiple family dwellings, theaters.
Windsor	Certain business establishments.
Darien	All structures in new developments.
Newington	Theaters, restaurants, business establishments and office buildings.
Glastonbury	Business establishments.
New Canaan	All structures.
Berlin	All structures but single family dwellings.
Farmington	Business and industrial structures.
Simsbury	All structures but single family dwellings.
Ridgefield	Theaters, business establishments, office buildings, industrial buildings.
Old Lyme	Single and multiple family dwellings, business establishments.

Summary

With the increasing use of Connecticut's streets and highways has come an ever increasing demand for more and better parking facilities in downtown areas. This is true in many small towns as well as big cities and in all sections of the state.

In attempting to meet the problem, towns and cities have tried to make the most efficient use of curb parking space as well as provide for adequate off-street parking. This is being accomplished through careful planning by local governments and with the help of business concerns and various civic organizations.

However, both curb parking regulations and public and cooperative off-street parking facilities are remedial attempts at solving a problem that is continuing to grow. In seeking a way of preventing parking difficulties before they arise, several Connecticut communities have turned to zoning for off-street parking.

All these approaches point up the big job that must be done. Nevertheless, the picture is by no means discouraging for a good start has been made and methods are available to solve the problem eventually if vigorously administered.

Introduction

The following is a summary of the findings of the study conducted in the city of New York. The study was designed to determine the extent of the parking problem in the city and to identify the causes of the problem. The study was conducted in the city of New York, and the findings are as follows:

In order to meet the problem, towns and cities have tried to take the following steps: use of curb parking space as well as provide for adequate off-street parking. This is being accomplished through careful planning by local governments and with the help of business concerns and various civic organizations.

However, both curb parking regulations and public and cooperative off-street parking facilities are becoming more difficult to maintain as the city grows. It is seeking a way of preventing parking difficulties before they arise. Several suggestions have been made for the city to take in order to solve the parking problem. All these suggestions are of the same nature and are of the same kind. The first suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The second suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The third suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The fourth suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The fifth suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The sixth suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The seventh suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The eighth suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The ninth suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city. The tenth suggestion is to increase the number of parking spaces in the city.

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INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC SERVICE
UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

STORRS, CONNECTICUT

Informational Bulletin No. 5

March, 1951

PROPOSAL TO TAX THE INTEREST ON STATE AND LOCAL BONDS
AND ITS EFFECT ON CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

From time to time over the last two decades various proposals have been presented to the Congress which would eliminate the tax exempt status of securities issued by state and local governments. Once again a similar measure is being seriously considered by Congress.

The groups favoring and opposing changes in the present exemptions are sharply divided. In view of the far reaching effects such changes might have on state and local finances in New England, the history of previous proposals and the various viewpoints on the modifications now being considered by the U. S. House of Representatives and Senate are of interest to state and local governmental officials throughout Connecticut.

Past Attempts to Remove Exemption

Several times during the 1930's bills were introduced in Washington that would have removed the tax-exemption feature of state and local securities. In each instance they were summarily dispensed with in a relatively short time because the House Ways and Means Committee refused to report such bills to the House.

However, in 1942 the Ways and Means Committee did approve a bill that would have terminated the exemption on future issues of state and municipal bonds. A short time later the Senate twice defeated this measure and thus prevented it from becoming law. Since the end of World War II the same question has come up several times but failed to pass either house of Congress.

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With the declaration of the present national emergency and the resultant increased pressure for larger revenues, a serious drive once again has begun. These present proposals seem to have more concerted support than any of those previously considered.

New Proposal

In his annual tax message delivered early in February, President Truman requested that Congress "plug" certain loopholes in the nation's tax laws. The tax-exempt status of state and local bonds was mentioned as one item that should be considered. Almost immediately the line was drawn between those approving a change and those opposing such action.

Approving Change

Among those agencies and organizations that immediately spoke out in favor of modifications were the Treasury Department, the President's Council of Economic Advisers and the Committee for Economic Development. Secretary of the Treasury Snyder said, "... The exemption of state and municipal securities is a long-standing barrier to the achievement of equity in the distribution of the individual income tax burden...".

In their annual economic review, the President's Council of Economic Advisers pointed out that: "the exemption of interest on state and local securities provides the anomaly that states and localities can sell securities at lower interest rates than the Federal Government. More important, a larger part of the tax benefit accrues to the security holder rather than to the state or local government." The Committee for Economic Development, an organization of prominent private citizens, also opposed continuing the exemption, calling it "unjustified."

Opposing Change

Nearly all organizations and associations of local public officials and municipalities have issued statements strongly opposing a change in the present

tax status of municipal securities. Leading the fight are the American Municipal Association and the U. S. Conference of Mayors. AMA claims that the removal of the exemption would add 1 - $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent to the interest charges on municipal bonds. Other arguments against the proposal are that it opens the way for federal taxation of all municipal enterprises - such as water plants, and that it might entirely eliminate the possibility of financing local projects by revenue bonds.

How Would a Change Effect Connecticut Towns and Cities?

The latest report of the State Tax Commissioner reveals that at the end of 1946 some \$99,500,000 was owed by all units of local government in Connecticut. A large part of this total is represented by local bonds.

In addition to this figure, 47 issues totaling \$33,114,000 were sold in 1949 and another 53 issues totaling \$32,657,000 were completed in 1950. There were also a number of other issues sold privately about which no information is available.

These public sales were made at quarterly average interest rates varying from a low of 1.3 per cent to a high of 1.578 per cent. The Dow-Jones average for all municipal sales over the whole country range from 1.74 to 1.95 in this same two year period.

If the present tax exemption on the interest of local securities is removed and interest rates increase 1 per cent to $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, on the basis of these figures, it would mean nearly a 100% rise in the cost of borrowing funds for most Connecticut towns and cities. Certainly this would work an extreme hardship in many communities that are now struggling to meet increased costs and at the same time provide improved services and additional facilities.

Summary

Connecticut towns and cities have been selling municipal securities at highly favorable interest rates. Any change or upward trend in interest rates

would effect almost every community and the services and facilities they are able to provide. Local officials will want to keep informed of developments and analyze how the present strongly-backed proposal to eliminate the tax-exempt status of state and local securities might effect their town or city.*

* Up to the minute information on Congressional Actions of interest to towns and cities is furnished in such publications as the Washington Newsletter of the American Municipal Association and the United States Municipal News published by the U. S. Conference of Mayors.

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INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC SERVICE
UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

STORRS, CONNECTICUT

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A SURVEY OF ASSESSMENT ADMINISTRATION
IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

by

Alden C. McCray

Graduate Fellow

JAN 10 1962

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Since the end of World War II in 1945, Connecticut towns and cities have found it necessary to meet rising operating costs, to provide for expanded or additional public services, and to construct new public buildings -- particularly schools. These rising costs and additional services and facilities coupled with recent property revaluations have brought about an increased interest in assessment administration and procedures on the part of local officials and citizens throughout the state.

Available information concerning assessment procedures and factors affecting assessment administration has not kept pace with the growing demand for this data. By means of a questionnaire mailed to assessors in all towns and cities in the state during February 1951, and by interviews with certain representative assessors, information was brought together for this bulletin concerning:

1. Personnel,
2. Expenditures,
3. Techniques of Assessing,
4. Revaluations.

The Questionnaire

Questionnaires were sent to assessors in each of the 169 towns and cities of the state. The results of this survey are based on answers received from officials in 136 towns and cities.

Response to Questionnaires			
Population Group	Number of Towns and Cities in Group	Number of Towns and Cities Returning Questionnaire	Per Cent of Returns
Over 50,000	6	6	100
25,000 - 50,000	17	17	100
10,000 - 25,000	20	18	90
5,000 - 10,000	23	19	83
2,000 - 5,000	50	36	72
Below 2,000	53	40	75
Total	169	136	Av. 80

Personnel

Information concerning personnel was compiled with respect to:

1. Occupations and Training
2. Basis of Selection
3. Basis of Compensation
4. Length of Term
5. Number of Assistants and Clerks

Occupations and Training

The farming and building professions were reported most frequently as being the present or former occupations of assessors.

In the larger towns and in cities, where the assessment function is a full time occupation, accountants, engineers, lawyers and trained assessment experts are most numerous.

Occupations and Training of Assessors								
Population Group	Farmer	Builder	Real Estate	Business	Engineer	Insurance	Accountant	Others (a)
Over 50,000	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	7
25,000 - 50,000	-	4	4	-	4	1	4	2
10,000 - 25,000	-	-	3	5	1	1	3	1
5,000 - 10,000	2	5	5	-	2	2	-	-
2,000 - 5,000	15	9	1	1	-	8	1	5
Below 2,000	28	14	4	9	7	-	2	3
Totals	45	33	17	15	15	12	11	18
(a) Others include: 4 Salesmen, 3 Teachers, 7 Trained Assessment Experts, 2 Lawyers, and 2 Bankers								

Basis of Selection

Assessors in Connecticut are either elected by popular vote or appointed. Ninety-nine of the 136 towns and cities reporting elect assessors. All of the towns in the smallest population group, with one exception, use the election method of selection, while assessors in towns and cities of the largest population group are appointed. Seventy-two of the 99 towns electing assessors are in the population groups of less than 5,000.

Basis of Selection		
Population Group	Elected	Appointed
Over 50,000	-	6
25,000 - 50,000	3	14
10,000 - 25,000	9	9
5,000 - 10,000	15	4
2,000 - 5,000	33	3
Below 2,000	39	1
Totals	99	37

Basis of Compensation

Compensation is based either on salary, per diem or contract fee. Salary is the most common method and was reported as being used in 80 towns and cities. Four towns pay a contract fee to an outside appraisal firm. This contract is handled in one of two ways, either the appraisal firm serves as the assessor, or it is employed to carry on the assessment function as the agent of the Board of Assessors.

Basis of Compensation			
Population Group	Salary	Per Diem	Contract Fee
Over 50,000	6	-	-
25,000 - 50,000	17	-	-
10,000 - 25,000	16	2	-
5,000 - 10,000	13	5	1
2,000 - 5,000	13	21	2
Below 2,000	15	24	1
Totals	80	52	4

Length of Term

Assessors' length of term in office, whether elected or appointed, varies from one year to appointment for an indefinite period, with the most frequent term being three years.

In cities over 50,000 population, most assessors are appointed for an indefinite term.

Three or four year terms are common in towns under 5,000 population where assessors are generally elected.

Length of Term						
Population Group	2 yrs.	3 yrs.	4 yrs.	6 yrs.	Indefinite	Others
Over 50,000	-	-	-	1	4	1(a)
25,000 - 50,000	3	3	2	3	6	-
10,000 - 25,000	4	6	4	2	1	1(b)
5,000 - 10,000	2	2	8	4	3	-
2,000 - 5,000	5	11	13	6	-	1(c)
Below 2,000	-	26	11	2	-	1(d)
Totals	14	48	38	18	14	4

(a) New Haven - 5 year term; (b) Groton - 1 year term;
(c) Haddam - 1 year term; (d) Ledyard - 1 year term.

Number of Assistants and Clerks

A distinction can be made between assistants to assessors and clerks, based upon the difference in the qualifications for the position. Assistants actually do some appraisal work, while clerks normally do not.

None of the towns with less than 2,000 population provide assistants for the assessors and only 10 in this group employ clerical group. The greatest number of assistants and clerks are found in the cities over 50,000 population. There is a marked tendency for the towns in the middle population groups (5,000 - 25,000) to hire clerical help rather than assistants.

Towns and Cities Having Assistants and Clerical Help								
Population Group	Number of Towns & Cities				Number of Towns & Cities			
	No Ass't	1 Ass't	2 Ass'ts	Over 2 Ass'ts	No Clks	1 Clk	2 - 5 Clks	Over 5 Clks
Over 50,000	-	1	3	2 (a)	-	-	2	4(b)
25,000 - 50,000	10	4	3	-	1	2	14	-
10,000 - 25,000	16	1	1	-	2	12	4	-
5,000 - 10,000	17	2	-	-	4	10	5	-
2,000 - 5,000	33	3	-	-	19	15	2	-
Below 2,000	40	-	-	-	30	9	1	-
Totals	116	11	7	2	56	48	28	4

(a) Waterbury - 7 assistants; Hartford-3 assistants.
 (b) Bridgeport - 12 clerks; Hartford - 11 clerks; New Haven-9 clerks; Stamford - 6 clerks.

Total Expenditures

Total expenditures for the assessment function for the year 1950 varied from a top of \$ 62,056 spent by one of the larger cities down to \$110 spent by one of the towns in the smallest population group. These two extremes point up the wide difference in the amount of work handled and the differences in complexity of function that exists between the larger cities and smaller towns in the state.

Only the six largest cities spent over \$30,000 while four towns and cities in the 25,000 - 50,000 population group spent over \$20,000. Thirty-six of the towns of less than 5,000 population spent less than \$1,000. The most frequent amounts reported were in the range of \$1,000 to \$3,000. Sixty-seven per cent of all towns reporting spent less than \$5,000.

Total Expenditures (1950)									
Population Group	Over \$30,000	\$20,000 - \$30,000	\$10,000 - \$20,000	\$5,000 - \$10,000	\$3,000 - \$5,000	\$1,000 - \$3,000	\$500 - \$1,000	Below \$500	Not Reporting
Over 50,000	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25,000 - 50,000	-	5	10	1	-	-	-	-	1
10,000 - 25,000	-	-	1	9	5	2	-	-	1
5,000 - 10,000	-	-	3	5	4	7	-	-	-
2,000 - 5,000	-	-	3	2	6	17	5	1	2
Below 2,000	-	-	1	-	2	6	12	18	1
Totals	6	5	18	17	17	32	17	19	5

Per Capita Expenditures

Per capita expenditures present a common base for relating the cost of assessment administration for towns and cities in the several population groups.

Per Capita Expenditures (1950)											
Population Group	Less Than \$.20	.20-.29	.30-.39	.40-.49	.50-.59	.60-.69	.70-.79	.80-.89	.90-.99	\$1.00-Over	Median
Over 50,000	-	2	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	.35
25,000 - 50,000	-	2	3	3	6	2	-	-	-	-	.50
10,000 - 25,000	1	4	4	4	-	1	-	1	1	2	.40
5,000 - 10,000	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	1	-	2	.50
2,000 - 5,000	1	2	9	3	2	3	1	3	1	8	.55
Below 2,000	1	8	3	4	7	-	6	1	4	5	.55
Totals	4	20	24	17	17	9	10	6	6	17	Av..45

The per capita expenditures for 59 per cent of the towns and cities reporting range between \$.20 to \$.59 with the range from \$.30 to \$.39 the most frequently reported. Towns in the larger population groups spend less than do the smaller towns on a per capita basis. Each of the towns and cities over 25,000 population spend less than \$.69 per capita as compared with 37 towns and cities of less than 25,000 population that spend more than \$.69 per capita.

Tools of Assessing

An effort was made in the study to ascertain the tools used in assessing.

These include:

1. Tax Maps
2. Building Valuation Methods
3. Land Valuation Techniques
4. Office Procedures
5. Personal Property Appraisal Devices.

Tax Maps

Assessors in 76, or 55 per cent of 136 towns and cities reporting, indicated that adequate tax maps were available for their use.

Towns and Cities Having Adequate Maps			
Population Group	Yes	No	Per Cent Having Adequate Maps
Over 50,000	6	-	100
25,000 - 50,000	16	1	94
10,000 - 25,000	14	4	77
5,000 - 10,000	13	6	68
2,000 - 5,000	21	15	58
Below 2,000	6	34	15
Totals	76	60	Average 55

All towns and cities in the largest population group have adequate maps, but only 15 per cent of the towns in the smallest group have these important tools of good assessment. Maps are based either on a ground or aerial survey with 65 of the towns and cities reporting that aerial maps were used. Twenty-three towns use maps based on ground surveys.

Basis of Maps		
Population Group	Aerial Survey	Ground Survey
Over 50,000	1	5
25,000 - 50,000	9	9
10,000 - 25,000	13	3
5,000 - 10,000	14	3
2,000 - 5,000	23	1
Below 2,000	5	2
Totals (a)	65	23
(a) Totals vary from the preceeding table because some towns have maps, but according to the assessors they are not adequate.		

Table 1. Summary of the data used in the analysis

Variable	Number of observations	Number of missing observations	Percentage of missing observations
Age	1,000	0	0.0%
Sex	1,000	0	0.0%
Marital status	1,000	0	0.0%
Education	1,000	0	0.0%
Income	1,000	0	0.0%
Health status	1,000	0	0.0%
Employment status	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of children	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of siblings	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of parents	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of grandparents	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of great-grandparents	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of other relatives	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of friends	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of neighbors	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of community members	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of total contacts	1,000	0	0.0%

The data were collected from a survey of 1,000 individuals in the United States. The survey was conducted by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NH&MRC) in 1998. The survey was designed to collect information on the health and well-being of the population. The survey included questions on a wide range of topics, including demographic information, health status, and social support. The data were analyzed using a series of statistical tests to determine the relationship between the variables. The results of the analysis are presented in the table above.

Source: National Health and Medical Research Council (NH&MRC) 1998.

Table 2. Summary of the data used in the analysis

Variable	Number of observations	Number of missing observations	Percentage of missing observations
Age	1,000	0	0.0%
Sex	1,000	0	0.0%
Marital status	1,000	0	0.0%
Education	1,000	0	0.0%
Income	1,000	0	0.0%
Health status	1,000	0	0.0%
Employment status	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of children	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of siblings	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of parents	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of grandparents	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of great-grandparents	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of other relatives	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of friends	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of neighbors	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of community members	1,000	0	0.0%
Number of total contacts	1,000	0	0.0%

The data were collected from a survey of 1,000 individuals in the United States. The survey was conducted by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NH&MRC) in 1998. The survey was designed to collect information on the health and well-being of the population. The survey included questions on a wide range of topics, including demographic information, health status, and social support. The data were analyzed using a series of statistical tests to determine the relationship between the variables. The results of the analysis are presented in the table above.

Source: National Health and Medical Research Council (NH&MRC) 1998.

Most towns and cities using aerial survey maps are in population groups of less than 10,000. In this group, towns are for the most part suburban or rural in character and it would be impractical and economically prohibitive to use the ground survey method.

A number of towns and cities in the larger population groups use special tax maps in addition to the regular maps based on ground or aerial surveys.

Special Tax Maps Available			
Population Group	Land Value	Lot and Block	Others (a)
Over 50,000	6	4	2
25,000 - 50,000	4	9	2
10,000 - 25,000	3	8	1
5,000 - 10,000	4	10	-
2,000 - 5,000	9	12	-
Under 2,000	-	1	-
Totals	26	44	5
(a) Others include: Sanborn, utilities, development, subdivision, zoning.			

Twenty-six towns and cities use land value maps, while 44 have lot and block maps. Maps supplemental to these are found only in towns and cities over 10,000 population. No town with less than 2,000 population uses a land value map and only one town in this group employs the lot and block system.

Revision of Maps					
Population Group	Before 1940	1940-1945	1945-1948	1948-1950	Constant Revision
Over 50,000	-	-	-	-	6
25,000 - 50,000	3	-	-	3	9
10,000 - 25,000	4	1	1	6	2
5,000 - 10,000	-	1	1	4	9
2,000 - 5,000	2	-	2	5	11
Below 2,000	-	-	-	3	3
Totals	9	2	4	21	40

Fifty-three per cent of the towns and cities with maps reported that they keep them up-to-date. Only nine units have maps which were last revised prior to 1940, while 81 per cent of the reporting towns and cities have had their maps revised since 1948. This can be partially explained by the relatively large number of revaluations that have been completed during the last two years.

Building Valuation Methods

In the valuation of buildings it was reported that 69 per cent of the towns and cities reporting use a Building Classification Schedule and 85 per cent use Construction Cost Schedules.

Towns and Cities Using Building Classification and Construction Cost Schedules				
Population Group	Classification Schedule		Construction Cost Schedules	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Over 50,000	6	—	6	—
25,000 — 50,000	16	1	16	1
10,000 — 25,000	12	6	18	—
5,000 — 10,000	16	3	18	1
2,000 — 5,000	26	10	30	6
Below 2,000	18	22	28	12
Totals	94	42	116	20

All of the cities over 50,000 population use both a classification and construction cost schedule and all but one of the towns and cities in the 25,000 to 50,000 population group use them.

Fifty-three per cent of towns and cities reporting use 1941 and 1942 as the base year for construction costs. Only 13 per cent use a base year as recent as 1948-1950 and 22 per cent use a base year prior to 1940.

Base Year for Construction Cost				
Population Group	Before 1940	1941 and 1942	1943 to 1946	1948 to 1950
Over 50,000	1	2	2	1
25,000 - 50,000	3	9	1	3
10,000 - 25,000	2	14	-	2
5,000 - 10,000	5	9	1	3
2,000 - 5,000	5	13	6	6
Below 2,000	10	14	2	2
Totals	26	61	12	17

Land Valuation Techniques

Land valuation methods vary greatly between urban and rural communities. In the urban areas, where most of the land is highly developed, assessment is usually based on front foot units. In assessing rural land, values are determined for acreage units or nominal standard house lots.

Method of Land Assessment				
Population Group	Front Foot	Depth Table	Excess Frontage Table	House Lot
Over 50,000	6	6	1	3
25,000 - 50,000	15	15	11	10
10,000 - 25,000	18	13	7	7
5,000 - 10,000	13	13	10	10
2,000 - 5,000	20	20	16	25
Below 2,000	9	6	3	29
Totals	81	73	48	84

A total of 81 of the towns and cities reporting, with the majority of them being in the larger population groups, use the front foot method while 84 use a house lot system. The most extensive use of the house lot system is in towns of

less than 5,000 population. With only a few exceptions, Depth Tables are used in conjunction with front foot systems. Less than half of the towns reporting use an excess frontage table.

Office Procedures

The survey revealed that more towns and cities in all population groups use some form of property record cards than use either classification or construction cost schedules. Of the 136 units, 109 use property record cards. All towns and cities over 10,000 population, with one exception, employ property cards as part of standard office procedure.

Office Procedure					
Population Group	Property Cards Used		Building Permits Used		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Not Required
Over 50,000	6	--	6	--	--
25,000 - 50,000	17	--	17	--	--
10,000 - 25,000	17	1	12	1	5
5,000 - 10,000	15	4	12	2	5
2,000 - 5,000	33	3	21	2	13
Below 2,000	21	19	7	2	31
Totals	109	27	75	7	54

Although building permits are not required by all local units in the state, 77 assessors reported that they made use of them to keep informed about new construction and structural additions. All municipalities of more than 10,000 population use building permits. Fifty-four of the small towns reported that there was no building permit ordinance in effect in their community.

Personal Property Appraisal Devices

It was found that in all towns and cities a greater effort is made to assess the larger income producing types of personal property such as leased equipment, factory equipment, construction equipment, inventories, farm animals, and farm equipment, than lesser income producing types such as household furniture, jewelry, private libraries and musical instruments.*

Items of Personal Property Assessed					
Population Group	No. of Towns Reporting	Factory Equipment	Construction Equipment	Vending Machines	Leased Equipment
Over 50,000	6	6	6	6	6
25,000 - 50,000	17	17	17	16	17
10,000 - 25,000	18	17	16	15	14
5,000 - 10,000	19	18	17	13	11
2,000 - 5,000	36	33	30	20	17
Below 2,000	40	25	23	8	7
Totals	136	116	109	78	72

The most frequently assessed item of personalty is factory equipment with 116 towns and cities reporting that they assess this item. Only eight towns assess radio and television sets. With only a few exceptions all of the towns over 10,000 population assess all the income producing types of personal property.

In the assessment of motor vehicles, it was found that 75 towns and cities receive declarations of motor vehicles from owners and 61 do not. Most of the units receiving declarations are in the population groups of less than 5,000. None of the cities over 50,000 receive declarations from property owners on this item of personal property.

* The General Statutes covering assessment of household furniture, private libraries, jewelry and other items were amended by the 1951 Session of the General Assembly, so as to eliminate these items from the list of taxable property items. The amendment is effective October 1, 1951.

Basis of Automobile Assessment						
Population Groups	Declarations Received		Basis of Assessment (Book Value)			
	Yes	No	As Is	Avg. Loan	Avg. Retail	Factory List
Over 50,000	-	6	3	2	-	1
25,000 - 50,000	2	15	8	2	4	4
10,000 - 25,000	8	10	6	9	2	1
5,000 - 10,000	8	11	6	9	4	-
2,000 - 5,000	31	5	11	21	3	1
Below 2,000	26	14	10	18	9	2
Totals	75	61	44	61	22	9

The basis of automobile assessment is the "Average Loan Price" as determined by the National Automobile Dealers Association in 61 of the towns and cities reporting. Forty-four use the NADA "As Is Value" while only nine use the "Factory List Price."

Revaluations

The number of towns and cities completing revaluations as required by Connecticut law has increased greatly since the end of the war. Revaluations have been made by one of three methods:

1. By the assessors themselves
2. By the assessors with the aid of outside consultants
3. By contract with an outside firm of appraisers.

When Revaluations Were Completed

Twenty towns and cities reported having completed revaluations in the five year period from 1940 to 1945. From 1946 to 1950, 100 towns and cities have completed revaluations or are in the process of having them completed. Sixteen towns reported that their latest revaluation was completed prior to 1940.

Year Revaluations Were Completed							
Population Group	Prior to 1940	1940 to 1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950 and in process
Over 50,000	1	1	—	—	—	—	4
25,000 — 50,000	5	2	—	2	1	4	3
10,000 — 25,000	3	4	1	2	1	5	2
5,000 — 10,000	1	5	1	1	4	5	2
2,000 — 5,000	2	5	1	4	7	10	7
Below 2,000	4	3	4	2	9	12	6
Totals	16	20	7	11	22	36	24

The biggest year for revaluations, as indicated by the table, was 1949. With the exception of towns and cities in the largest population group, there was much revaluation activity in towns and cities of all sizes that year. In the last three years revaluations have been completed or are in process in 82 towns and cities.

How Revaluations Were Made

In all groups except towns below 2,000 population, the number of towns that hired outside firms to make revaluations are greater than the number of those where assessors with consultants or the assessors themselves have completed the revaluations.

How Revaluations Were Made			
Population Group	Assessors	Assessors with Consultants	Outside Firm
Over 50,000	3	—	3
25,000 — 50,000	4	1	12
10,000 — 25,000	5	1	12
5,000 — 10,000	5	—	14
2,000 — 5,000	12	3	21
Below 2,000	26	3	11
Totals	55	8	73

In fifty-five of the towns and cities, the assessors have completed revaluations themselves. Of this number, 26 are in the smallest group. Assessors in only eight towns have completed revaluations with the partial assistance of outside consultants.

Frequency of Revaluations

The statutes of the State of Connecticut require that revaluations be completed at least once in every ten year period.

Frequency of Revaluations More Often Than Once Per Ten Years		
Population Group	Yes	No
Over 50,000	3	3
25,000 - 50,000	2	15
10,000 - 25,000	1	17
5,000 - 10,000	3	16
2,000 - 5,000	2	34
Below 2,000	6	34
Totals	17	119

The figures in this table indicate that 119 of the total 136 towns and cities have not had revaluations more frequently than once in every ten year period.

Summary

Property assessment, more than any other function of local government, plays a unique role for it is upon the assessed values of property that the financial life of every town and city depends. Assessors throughout the state have shown an increased awareness and interest concerning this responsibility.

A wide variety of skills and fields of learning are represented through personnel active in local assessment work. Most of Connecticut's assessors are

The purpose of this study is to determine the frequency of property revaluations in the United States. The study is based on a survey of 100 cities and towns. The results of the survey are presented in the following table.

Frequency of Property Revaluations

The following table shows the frequency of property revaluations in 100 cities and towns. The first column shows the frequency of revaluations per year, and the second column shows the number of cities and towns in each category.

Frequency of Revaluations per Year	Number of Cities and Towns
More than once	1
Once	1
Less than once	1
Never	1
Not known	1
Total	1

The figures in this table indicate that 1% of the total 100 cities and towns have revalued their property more frequently than once in every ten year period.

Assessment, more than any other function of local government, plays a major role in the financial health of the community. It is upon the assessed value of property that the financial health of the community depends. Assessors throughout the state have shown an increasing tendency to revalue property more frequently than in the past.

elected by popular vote and more than two-thirds are paid by salary. The length of term for assessors varies, but the most common are three or four years.

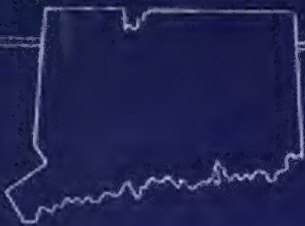
Total expenditures for assessment work range from \$62,000 spent in 1950 by a city with over 50,000 population, to \$110 spent by a town of less than 2,000 population. Total expenditures are higher in towns of greater population, but per capita expenditures are less in larger towns and cities.

In determining the techniques of assessing in use, it was found that most assessment districts have tax maps based on either ground or aerial surveys. An effort is made in most cases to keep maps up-to-date by constant revision.

Three-fourths of all towns reporting use building classification and construction cost schedules. The most frequently used base year for the cost schedule is 1941-1942.

Most of the smaller towns use an average house lot system of land assessment while the larger towns tend to use front foot and depth factor tables. Property cards and building permits are quite generally employed, particularly in the larger towns and cities. A variety of personal property items **is** assessed with the income producing types most consistently listed. All jurisdictions assess motor vehicles.

There has been much revaluation activity in Connecticut towns and cities of all population groups since the end of World War II. Since 1946, 100 towns and cities have completed revaluations or are in the process of having them completed. Most of the revaluations have been completed by outside appraisal firms.



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UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

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BORROWING BY CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

April 1948 - April 1953

by

UNIVERSITY OF HARTFORD

JAN 10 1962

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Beldon H. Schaffer

Research Associate

Capital investment to construct schools, incinerators, public buildings and other types of public facilities places a heavy burden on the financial resources of Connecticut communities. Tax dollars, their purchasing power already shrunk by inflation, must be supplemented as the need for capital improvements in Connecticut towns and cities becomes apparent.

Caught between the practical limitations of property tax increases and the urgent need to provide additional public facilities and services, Connecticut towns and cities are relying more and more on borrowing the required money.

Extent of Borrowing

Unrelenting pressure on Connecticut local units of governments to expand and repair schools, extend water and sewage facilities, construct public buildings, streets and other public works is reflected in the amount of money borrowed during the past five years.

Towns, cities, boroughs, and special districts in Connecticut borrowed 171.8 million dollars during the period April 1948 - April 1953 by selling bonds at public auction.¹ Sixty per cent of this money is being used to pay for school expansion and repair. The remaining 40 per cent is paying for additions, renovation or replacement of sewage facilities, water systems, streets, public buildings and other public necessities.

Three hundred and eight separate public bond sales were held by Connecticut towns or cities during the five-year period to purchase this record amount of money for public use.

Table I

Total Bond Issues Sold at Public Sale by all
Connecticut Local Units of Government
April 1948 - April 1953

Purpose	Amount	Per cent of Total	Number of Issues
Schools	103,391,600	60.2	166
Sewage	23,060,000	13.5	53
Water	7,159,000	4.2	18
Improvement	16,314,400	9.5	27
Street	9,946,000	5.7	12
Other*	<u>11,947,000</u>	<u>6.9</u>	<u>32</u>
Total	171,818,000	100.0	308

* Includes bond issues for public buildings, departmental equipment, electricity, incinerators, parks and playgrounds, temporary housing, refunding, and an airport.

Cost of Money Borrowed

Local units of government in Connecticut have generally been able to buy money at favorable rates of interest in comparison with the Dow-Jones municipal

¹ This total is obtained from a tabulation of the public bond sales during the period April 1948 - April 1953 as reported in CONNECTICUT GOVERNMENT, Vol. 1, No. 2; Vol. 6, No. 3, Institute of Public Service, University of Connecticut.

1. The first part of the report is a general introduction to the subject of the study. It discusses the importance of the problem and the objectives of the research. It also mentions the scope of the study and the methods used.

2. The second part of the report is a detailed description of the experimental work. It includes a description of the apparatus used, the procedure followed, and the results obtained. It also discusses the errors and uncertainties involved in the measurements.

3. The third part of the report is a discussion of the results. It compares the experimental results with the theoretical predictions and discusses the reasons for any discrepancies. It also discusses the implications of the results for the field of study.

4. The fourth part of the report is a conclusion. It summarizes the main findings of the study and states the conclusions drawn from the results. It also mentions any further work that needs to be done.

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9. P. R. Yellow, "The Motion of a Particle in a Circular Arc," *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, vol. 9, pp. 1-10, 1709.
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average. The weighted average interest rate for Connecticut municipalities, however, shows a definite trend upward. (See Table II) This tendency is in line with a nationwide increase in the cost of borrowing which has reached serious proportions in the sale of municipal bonds. The Dow-Jones municipal average rose to 2.84% as of August 10, 1953 with no clear indications of leveling off. Applied to Connecticut towns and cities, assuming continued favorable credit ratings, this means a local unit of government in Connecticut will be fortunate to sell a bond issue on today's market at an interest rate of 2.5%--even with a triple A credit rating.

Table II
Weighted Average Interest Rate²
on
Bonds Sold by Connecticut Towns and Cities
April 1948 - April 1953

Population	April 1948-1949	April 1949-1950	April 1950-1951	April 1951-1952	April 1952-1953	Rate for Period
Towns under 5,000	1.618	1.555	1.390	1.767	1.935	1.708
Towns 5,000 to 20,000	1.756	1.589	1.573	1.779	1.815	1.763
Towns 20,000 to 50,000	1.563	1.587	1.527	1.697	1.799	1.682
Cities over 50,000	<u>1.782</u>	<u>1.457</u>	<u>1.522</u>	<u>1.549</u>	<u>1.571</u>	<u>1.614</u>
Rate for all Local Units	1.651	1.550	1.545	1.721	1.699	1.701

Comparison by Population

Grouping Connecticut towns and cities by population permits some comparison of borrowing activities during the past five years among municipalities of different sizes.³

² A weighted average interest rate takes into account the amount of the various bond issues. It is an attempt to provide a more accurate average by giving more "weight" to the larger bond issues.

³ Special districts did not borrow a statistically significant amount during the reporting period. They are included with the town in which they are located in the accompanying tables. Borrowing by regional high school districts is noted separately. Bonding activities of the Hartford Metropolitan District are not included in this study.

Small Towns Borrow Almost as Much as Large Cities

The demand on some rapidly expanding Connecticut towns with populations between 5,000 and 20,000 to increase services has necessitated increased borrowing by a number of towns in this population group in recent years. Expressed in terms of a percentage of the total amount borrowed by all Connecticut towns and cities during the 5-year period, the difference between towns in the 5,000 to 20,000 class and cities over 50,000 is only 4.1 per cent. See Table III.

Table III

Total Amount of Borrowing According to Population Group
April 1948 - April 1953

Connecticut Towns and Cities	Amount Borrowed	Per cent of Total	Number of Issues
Under 5,000	13,882,000	7.9	50
5,000 to 20,000	47,001,000	27.8	74
20,000 to 50,000	52,559,000	30.9	79
50,000 and over	56,404,000	31.9	94
Regional High School Districts	<u>1,972,000</u>	<u>1.5</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	171,818,000	100.0	308

1951-1952 Shows Heaviest Borrowing

The impact of an increasing population coupled with delayed capital improvement projects is noticeable in the large increase in the amounts borrowed by towns and cities with a population of 5,000 to 50,000. This greater need for funds began to be felt in 1949-1950, especially in towns and cities in the 20,000 to 50,000 group. The financial effect of growth and its resulting jolt on the bonded debt in towns between 5,000 and 20,000 becomes most apparent during 1951-1952 when towns in this group increased their borrowing activities 13.4 million dollars over the previous yearly period. Long-term borrowing by local governments in Connecticut reached a high for the 5-year study of 51.4 million dollars from April 1951-April 1952. (See Graph I)

to the extent of the amount of the contribution

of the group in the year of the contribution

of the group in the year of the contribution

of the group in the year of the contribution

of the group in the year of the contribution

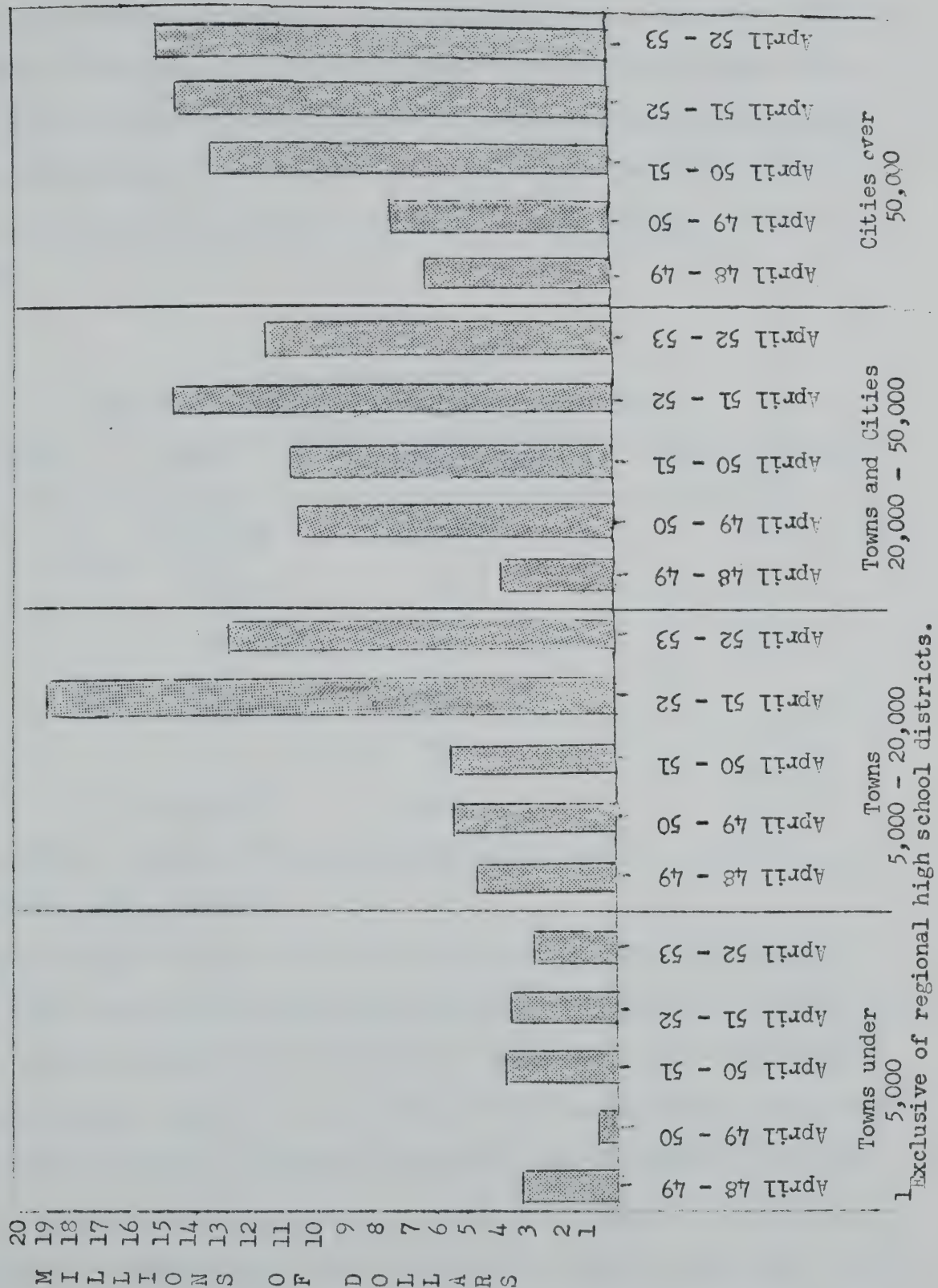
of the group in the year of the contribution

of the group in the year of the contribution

Year	Amount	Percentage
1950	1,000,000	100%
1951	1,000,000	100%
1952	1,000,000	100%
1953	1,000,000	100%
1954	1,000,000	100%
1955	1,000,000	100%

GRAPH I

Comparison by Year - Borrowing by Connecticut Towns and Cities¹
 April 1948 - April 1953



¹Exclusive of regional high school districts.

Towns Under 5,000

Need for school expansion, replacement, and repair accounted for almost 97 per cent of the money borrowed by towns in this population group. Old school houses no longer adequate to accommodate an increasing number of children have been replaced in many towns with modern buildings. Many small towns accustomed to financing capital improvement projects on a pay-as-you-go basis were forced to borrow money to meet the large capital investment required in present-day school construction. See Table IV.

Table IV

Towns under 5,000
Bonds Sold at Public Sale—April 1948 - 1953

Purpose of Issue	Amount	Per cent of Total	Number of Issues
Schools	13,443,000	96.9	56
Sewage	95,000	.7	1
Water	-----	----	--
Improvement	-----	----	--
Street	-----	----	--
Other	<u>344,000</u>	<u>2.4</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	13,882,000	100.0	59

Towns and Cities 5,000 - 20,000

Many towns in this group, especially those near the large urban centers of Connecticut, have experienced a considerable increase in population in recent years. This growth brings additional tax resources to a community but it also brings a demand for more public services. When existing school accommodations were compared with the increasing number of school-age children to be accommodated, many towns and cities in this population group had to resort to borrowing to provide the required capital. At the same time, need for storm and sanitary sewer lines, water facilities, playgrounds, and other public services forced growing towns in this

group to additional long-term borrowing. See Table V.

Table V

Towns 5,000 to 20,000
Bonds Sold at Public Sale--April 1948 - April 1953

Purpose of Issue	Amount Borrowed	Per cent of Total	Number of Issues
Schools	37,116,000	78.8	51
Sewage	2,600,000	5.7	7
Water	850,000	1.9	3
Improvement	790,000	1.7	6
Street	-----	-----	--
Other	<u>5,645,000</u>	<u>11.9</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	47,001,000	100.0	74

Towns and Cities 20,000 - 50,000

As governmental units become larger the predominance of school financing becomes proportionately less significant. Bonding for school purposes remains high, while bonding for other capital projects such as sewage and water systems assumes importance. Towns and cities in this group have also felt the effect of growth and the accompanying increase in required services and facilities.

Table VI

Towns 20,000 to 50,000
Bonds Sold at Public Sale--April 1948 - April 1953

Purpose of Issue	Amount Borrowed	Per cent of Total	Number of Issues
Schools	33,811,000	64.3	34
Sewage	8,755,000	16.7	23
Water	3,409,000	6.4	11
Improvement	3,240,000	6.2	4
Street	150,000	.3	1
Other	<u>3,194,000</u>	<u>6.1</u>	<u>6</u>
Total	52,559,000	100.0	79

Cities 50,000 and Over

The six cities in Connecticut with a population of 50,000 and over borrowed heavily during the past five years. Like their smaller sisters, the larger Connecticut cities needed large amounts of capital to meet expansion and repair costs. However, the larger cities' requirements were more diversified than the smaller communities. General improvement projects and sewage needs accounted for a larger portion of the money borrowed by cities in this population group than in less populated Connecticut towns and cities.

Table VII.

Cities Over 50,000 Bonds Sold at Public Sale--April 1948 - April 1953

Purpose of Issue	Amount Borrowed	Per cent of Total	Number of Issues
Schools	17,049,000	30.8	23
Sewage	11,610,000	20.6	22
Water	2,900,000	5.4	4
Improvement	12,284,000	21.6	17
Street	9,706,000	16.4	11
Other	<u>2,764,000</u>	<u>5.2</u>	<u>17</u>
Total	56,404,000	100.0	94

Comparison by Purpose of Issue

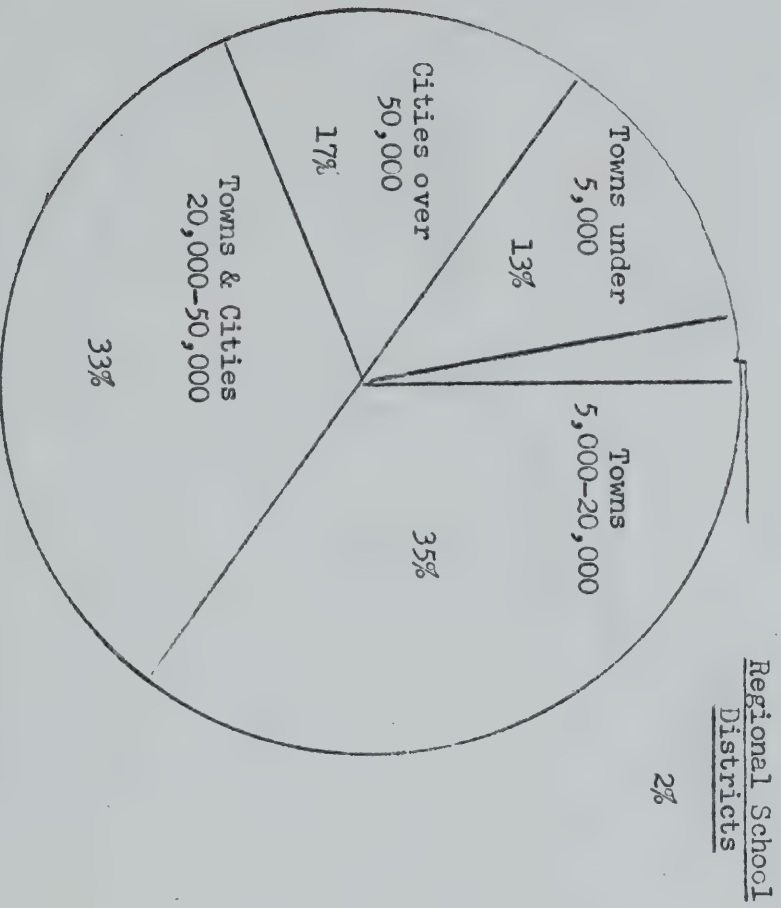
Another method of comparing bond issues sold by local units in Connecticut during the past five years is by the purpose of issue. The amounts in Graphs II - VII are those used in Tables I - VII.

Types of Bonds Sold

All bonds sold by Connecticut municipalities are debenture contracts. That is, they are generally not secured by mortgage or collateral liens. Their value rests in the ability of the borrowing governmental unit to levy taxes on the community

BONDS SOLD BY CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES - APRIL 1948 - APRIL 1953
According to
Purpose of Issue

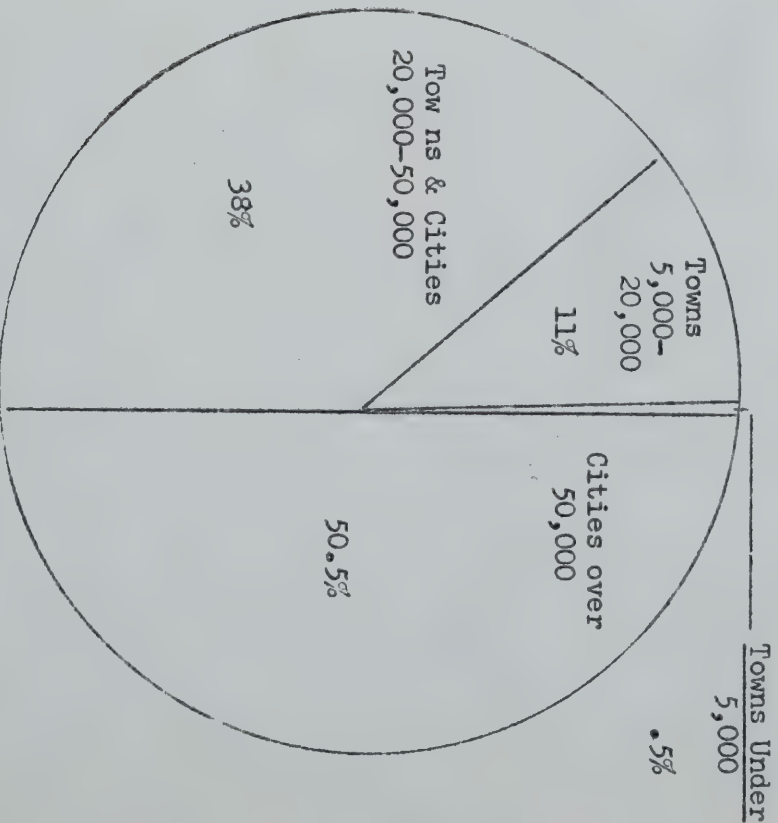
SCHOOL



TOTAL \$103,391,600

GRAPH II

SEWER

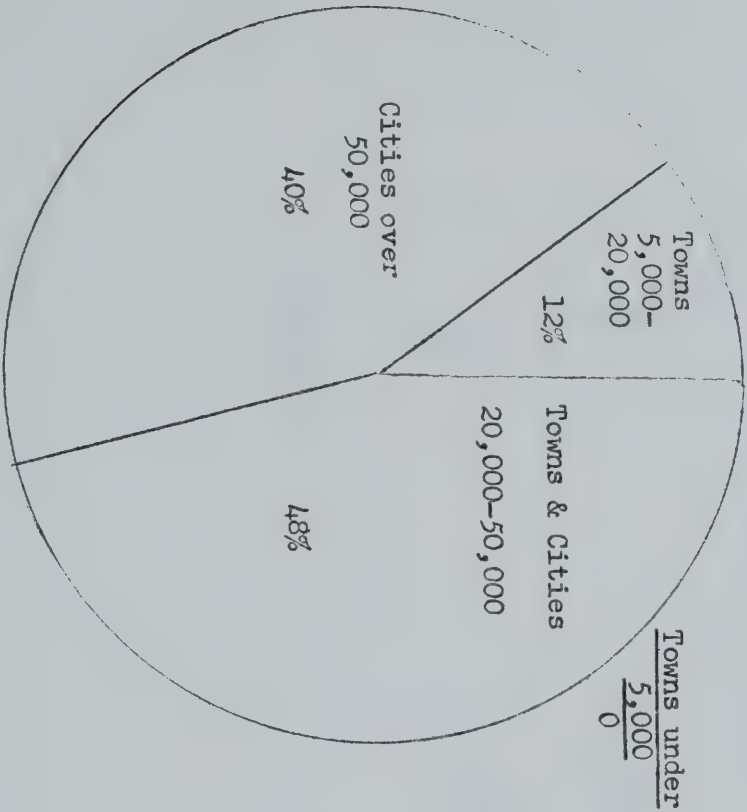


TOTAL \$23,060,000

GRAPH III

BONDS SOLD BY CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES - APRIL 1948 - APRIL 1953
According to
Purpose of Issue

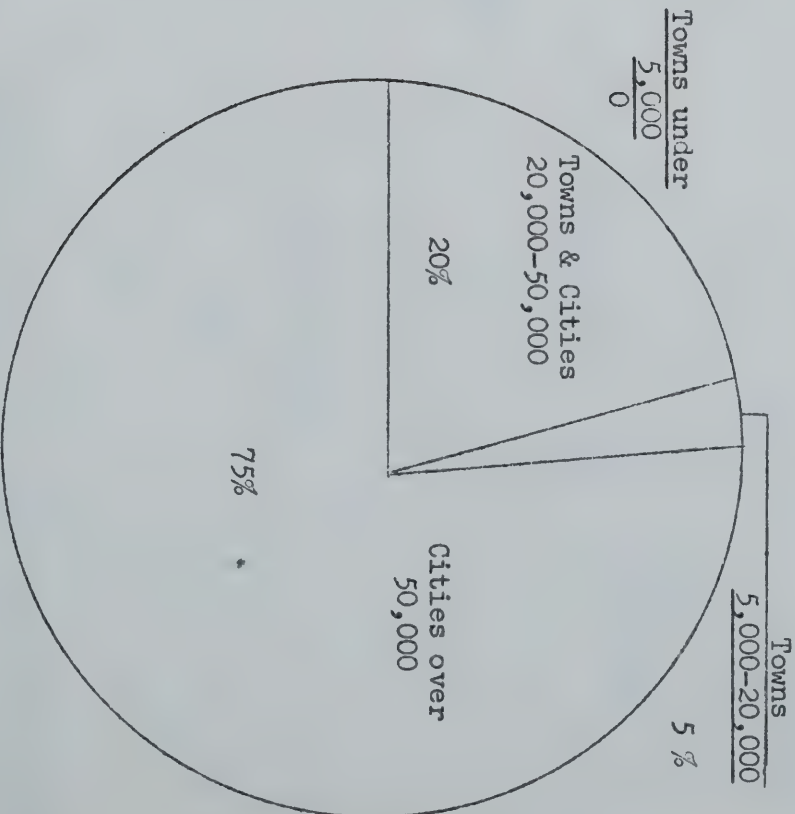
WATER



TOTAL \$7,159,000

GRAPH IV

IMPROVEMENT

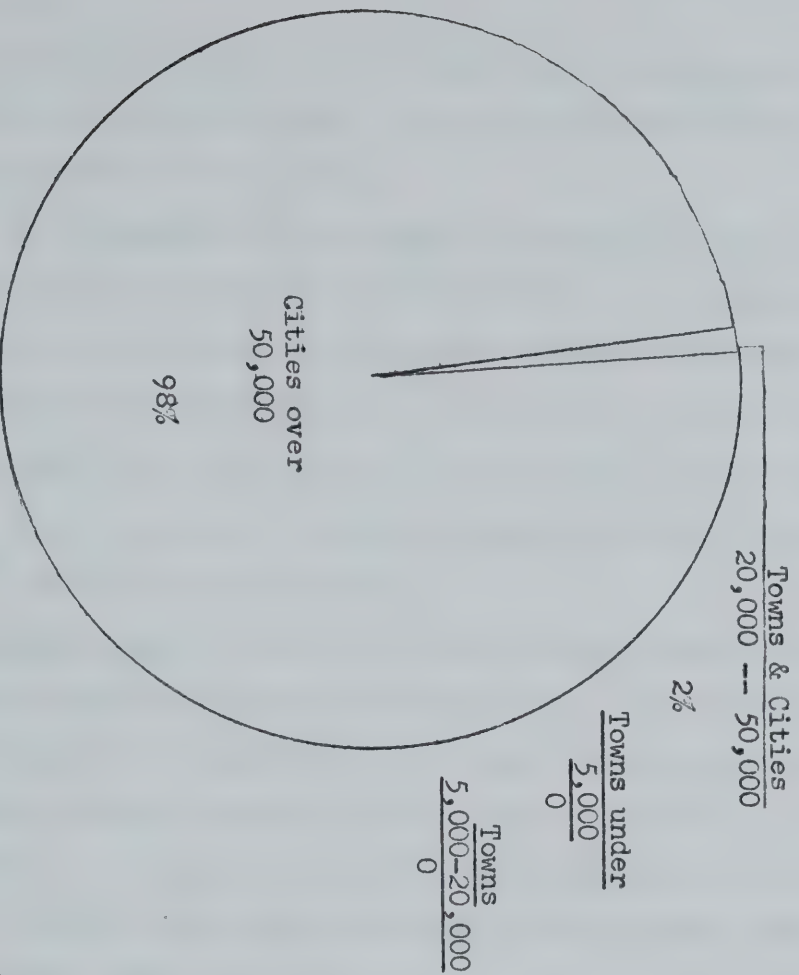


TOTAL \$16,314,400

GRAPH V

BONDS SOLD BY CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES - APRIL 1948 - APRIL 1953
According to
Purpose of Issue

STREET

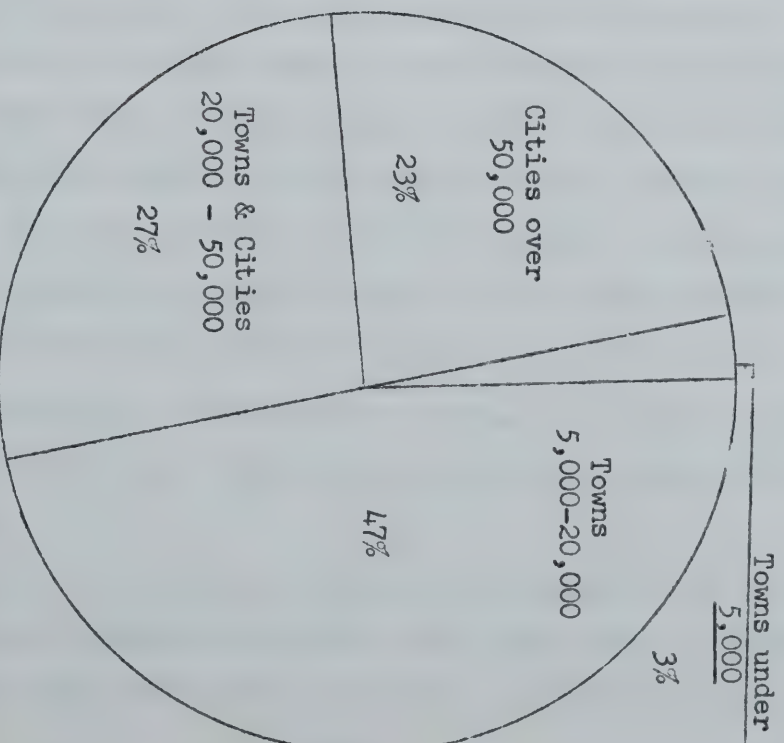


TOTAL \$9,946,000¹

¹Includes \$9,003,000 offered for sale as Public works bonds.

GRAPH VI

OTHER¹



TOTAL \$11,947,000

¹Includes bond issues for public buildings, subways, departmental equipment, electricity, incinerators, park & playgrounds, temporary housing, refunding, and an airport.

GRAPH VII

which has a grand list sufficient to provide funds for the payment of bond principal and interest.

Long-term debt obligations offered for public sale by Connecticut local governments may be classified into three types, the type selected depending upon the purpose for which the money is to be used.

The bond sold most frequently is the general obligation bond. The full faith and credit of the local unit is behind this type of bond. As long as a town or city is solvent it cannot repudiate its obligation to meet installments as they come due. Bonds of this type must ultimately be paid out of general property tax revenue although revenues from other sources may form part of the repayment. General obligation bonds are issued for such purposes as school projects, a new town or city hall, a playground and the like.

A special assessment bond is issued to finance an improvement project within a municipality which, though of general public interest, is of special benefit to persons or certain property in a limited area. This form of bonding is especially useful in meeting the problems created by the growth of certain sections of an established community. A charge is imposed to defray the cost or part of the cost of the improvement. Revenue from the improvement is used to meet the annual installments of the bonded debt.

Special assessment bonds are most often sold in one of two ways. One type is in substance a full faith and credit bond. If assessments on the property owners who benefit by the improvement are insufficient to meet interest and principal the bond becomes a general obligation of the local government. The other type is an assessment bond that must rely entirely on benefit charges. No charge against the local government as a whole may be made in case of inadequate revenue from the benefit charge. This type of bond normally costs a community more than a full-faith-and-credit bond because of the relative uncertainty of the adequacy of repayment funds. Sewer and water improvements are often financed with a special assessment bond issue.

Revenue bonds are a relatively new method of financing public projects. This type of bond is a special obligation for which the sole source of payment is the revenue from the public enterprise being financed. Systems for water, electricity,

sewage, and public parking facilities are examples of revenue producing enterprises. Revenue bonds payable from the charges collected for the services of these facilities have been the chief means of enabling municipalities to finance such projects. This type of bond has no claim on the general credit or taxing power of the municipality.

Serial Bonds Required

As a result of action taken by the 1923 Session of the General Assembly Connecticut towns, cities and other local units are required to secure debt by the sale of serial annuity bonds sold on a fixed date. This form of bond is redeemable in approximately equal annual installments. The law requires that the first installment mature within two years of the date of issue. The last installment must mature within twenty years of the first maturity. (S.153b)⁴

The 1923 legislative action abolished further issuance of term bonds secured by a sinking fund. Experience disclosed many disadvantages in the sinking fund method of financing. Among these were (1) a tendency to renew term bonds rather than paying them off when they came due, (2) an inclination to borrow from sinking funds for current operation or other purposes and (3) accounting for sinking funds became quite complicated.

The disadvantages mentioned above are overcome by the use of serial financing. In addition, debt reductions for serial bonds generally provide for larger payments than for a sinking fund thus disposing of the debt quicker and at less cost to the taxpayers of the town or city.

Serial bonds have still another advantage over term bonds secured by sinking funds. There is a growing demand for municipal bonds from different classes of investors. Each class requires different maturities to suit its needs. For example, commercial banks generally want bonds of short maturities, while trust funds and insurance companies require the longer maturities. A serial issue can be arranged to meet the needs of all these investors.

⁴ Number in parentheses preceded by "S" and followed by "b", (S.153b), refers to sections of the 1951 Supplement to the General Statutes.

Influential Factors

In considering the tabulations in this bulletin, it is essential to relate increases in number of dollars borrowed to fluctuations in purchasing value of the dollar. Inflation knows no boundaries, political or otherwise. Dollar volume increases in long-term debt should be scaled to actual purchasing value to obtain a more realistic idea of real debt increases.

As an aid in judging the influence of inflation on local debt structure in Connecticut, Table VIII may be appropriate.

Table VIII
Indicators of Inflation

	<u>1929</u>	<u>1933</u>	<u>1945</u>	<u>1951</u>
<u>Total Income Payments</u>				
Individuals in Connecticut (millions \$)	1459	888	2604	4071
Per Capita	918	540	1483	1999
Consumer Price Index United States Average (1935-1939=100)	122.5	92.4	128.6	<u>April 1953</u> 190.1
Purchasing Power of the Dollar (Consumer Prices) (1935-1939=100)	81.6	108.2	77.8	<u>April 1953</u> 52.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States 1950, Table 318, p. 266; U.S. Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, June 1953; Tax Foundation, Facts and Figures on Government Finance, 1952-53.

When inflationary indicators are applied to the cost of municipal services, it is not difficult to determine part of the reason Connecticut municipalities are finding it extremely difficult to finance current capital requirements on a pay-as-you-go basis. The plain fact is that it takes more dollars to accomplish current objectives. This is true for families as well as local government. As a result, Connecticut towns and cities find the taxpayer very sensitive to property

tax increases. Caught between the shrinking value of tax revenue and the resistance of taxpayers to tax revenue increases, government officials are forced to turn to time payment plans.

Some, but not all, of the increase in borrowing by Connecticut towns, cities and special districts may be traced to the inflationary impact of dollar purchasing value fluctuations. Other factors influencing increased purchasing of money by Connecticut local units include:

- (1) accumulation of postponed projects during and since World War II,
- (2) movement of population,
- (3) increase in population,
- (4) constantly improving standard of living.

The movement of families from urban areas or highly concentrated centers of population to suburban fringe areas presents multiple problems to local officials in the affected areas. The former city dwellers bring with them a demand for street paving, sewage disposal, water mains, plus well trained and efficient police, fire and other personnel. Many of these same people now become "daylight citizens" of the city from which they recently moved. This increases the governmental problems of the central city in providing police and fire protection and improved transportation facilities without the power to tax these migrated citizens. Both the suburban town and the central city are affected by this form of population movement. A by-product common to both areas is borrowing to meet the problems created by the newly located citizens.

Future Debt

What demands the near future will make for additional schools, sewage and water facilities, parking space and other public services can only be surmised. The development of better means of travel coupled with an increasing desire on the part of many citizens to live in the suburbs in single homes will have further effects on the debt patterns of many Connecticut towns and cities. The wave of

children which jolted the birth rate immediately after World War II is presently swelling through primary and junior high schools throughout the state. This wave will crest in already overcrowded high schools in many towns and cities all too soon for sound debt schedules.

As the people of Connecticut continue to request civic improvements in their communities, to move to suburban areas and as the birth rate shows only gradual tendencies to "level off," Connecticut towns and cities will be required to provide more public services in the years ahead. Already heavily burdened communities will be forced to increase their outstanding debt balances. Many will nudge their legal debt limit not too gently to meet needs of their citizens.

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TAX SAVINGS FOR CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES THROUGH ORGANIZED PURCHASING

by

Beldon H. Schaffer

Research Associate

Most Connecticut towns and cities, are currently operating between the need for additional tax money to provide adequate services and the resistance of taxpayers to property tax increases. This situation requires public officials to seek greater efficiency in administration to increase the value of the tax dollar.

One activity common to all government is the purchasing of commodities to be used in day-to-day operation. Because supplies and materials constitute a sizeable portion of the cost of governmental operation, a proper subject in any discussion of governmental economy is efficient and economical purchasing.

Considerable thought has been given to improving methods of public buying. This thinking has resulted in some ideas that are worthy of consideration by those interested in providing adequate public service at the lowest possible cost.

The Pattern of Experience

Combining of commodity requirements of individual departments in industrial concerns, state governments and an increasing number of towns and cities into quantity orders is an established practice. The proven results are better quality at lower prices.

Despite the profitable experience of private industry and some units of government, many governmental organizations continue to buy in small quantities and usually at retail prices. This is especially true in small towns and cities where the volume of purchases is not generally considered sufficient to warrant consolidation of requirements or the obtaining of competitive bids.

Purchasing Systems of Connecticut Local Governments

Among towns and cities in Connecticut, purchasing systems of all types prevail. Some communities have no system of purchasing as such. Purchases are made by individual departments as supplies are needed, the only centralized supervision being the auditing of claims against the town or city. Under this method, the sole concern is the legality of the purchase: was the material delivered and are funds available for payment? At the other end of the scale are examples of well-organized efficient systems closely following sound organizational and procedural practices. Between these extremes, Connecticut towns and cities maintain examples of purchasing methods of varying degrees of merit.

Why Organize Purchasing

Every Connecticut community expects its public officials to purchase supplies and materials at the lowest price for the quality and quantity required. Purchasing methods in use by Connecticut towns and cities must therefore be designed to attain this objective. In

The Problem of Purchasing

...of commodity requirements of individual departments to
...state governments and an increasing number of
...the profitable expansion of private industry and some
...government, many governmental organizations continue to buy
...This is especially
...small towns and cities where the volume of purchases is not
...sufficient to warrant consideration of separate
...purchasing systems.

Purchasing Systems of Connected Local Governments

...towns and cities in Connecticut, purchasing systems of all
...Some communities have no system of purchasing as such,
...and made by individual departments as supplies are needed,
...the auditing of claims against
...Under this method, the sole concern is the locality
...At the other end of the scale are examples of well-
...examples of purchasing methods of varying degrees

The Connecticut Example

...Purchasing methods in use by Connecticut towns
...therefore be assigned to attain this objective. In

the search for administrative practices which will result in cash savings, town and city officials should not overlook the experience of business. Business has systematically reduced costs by practical purchasing methods. Connecticut communities interested in maintaining or increasing services and, at the same time reducing costs must adopt similar technical methods.

Towns, cities and industries that have successfully organized their purchasing procedures find advantages such as:

1. Better quality at lower prices through bulk purchases.
2. Articles in use by different departments for the same purpose can be standardized.
3. Standard specifications can be developed. This provides a clear definition of the commodity to be purchased, thus insuring the municipality that interested vendors are bidding on the same item and the item being bid on is the one the town or city wants.
4. Operating departments are relieved of time consuming detail essential to efficient purchasing.
5. Closer accounting control over expenditures.
6. Savings and discounts through prompt payment of bills.

In addition a systematic purchasing system insures towns and cities receipt of tax exemptions they are entitled to; namely, federal transportation and excise taxes, state sales tax and the like.

In every Connecticut town or city, regardless of size, a considerable number of commodities are used by all or almost all the government departments. Fuel oil or coal must be purchased for heating of school buildings, the town hall, the library and other community-operated buildings. All departments use furniture, stationery and office supplies. In towns and cities where motor

Business has systematically reduced costs by producing goods and city officials should not overlook the experience. Connecticut communities interested in maintaining services and, at the same time reducing costs must

towns, cities and industries that have successfully organized and purchasing procedures find advantages such as:
1. Greater ability to lower prices through bulk purchases.
2. Greater ability to use by different departments for the same purpose can be standardized.
3. Standard specifications can be developed. This provides a clear definition of the commodity to be purchased, thus insuring the municipality that interested vendors are bidding on the same item and the item being bid on is the one the town or city wants.

Operating departments are relieved of time consuming work in obtaining quotations.
4. Savings and discounts through prompt payment of bills.
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equipment is owned and operated, gasoline, lubricating oil, tires and repair parts are required. Opposition to an organized centrally administered purchasing system in smaller towns and cities usually is based on the supposition that the volume of such purchases by individual departments is not large enough to justify consolidation of requirements or to obtain competitive bids. Actually the opposite is true. The fact that each department in a smaller town or city needs only limited quantities of these items makes it even more imperative that requirements of all the departments be consolidated into larger orders if bulk prices and cash savings are to be realized.

Suggestions on Organizing

Experience has shown that it is usually wise to organize a purchasing system gradually.

The first necessary step is authorizing a systematic purchasing policy through executive action of the selectmen, mayor or manager; and legislative action of the town meeting, or charter revision by referendum. Where charter revision is required caution is urged against including detailed procedures in the charter. Procedural details should be established by ordinance so that they may be changed as required to take advantage of experience and technical advances.

The second step is the selection of a qualified person as purchasing officer or agent. In small communities where the total amount of purchases is not large, an official may be designated as purchasing agent in addition to other duties. In selecting personnel it must be understood that in the hands of an incompetent person, even the best administrative plan will fail.

The next step is the development of a carefully worked out purchasing plan. This should be a cooperative effort of the town or city executive, the purchasing officer and department heads. Under the

authority of charter and ordinance provisions, the town or city executive and the purchasing officer may issue rules prescribing in detail how specific purchasing matters are to be handled.

Standards and Specifications

When purchasing is unorganized, individual departments frequently buy a variety of brands and grades of the same article. In many instances, using departments consider one particular brand name of a commodity indispensable to their operation. Under an organized purchasing system, the variety of types, sizes and grades of supplies and materials are reduced to the minimum variation actually needed without sacrificing quality. An item that is established as an acceptable equivalent for all variations in use is a standardized item.

The objectives of standardization are:

- (1) Elimination of variations which are wasteful or unnecessarily expensive.
- (2) Consolidation of requirements to facilitate bulk purchases.
- (3) Determination of items which can be used for more than one purpose.

The proven results of standardization are cash savings.

Items most commonly used by all departments such as floor waxes, heating fuels, office furniture, etc. should be standardized first. Once a standard item has been agreed upon, through cooperative action of the purchasing officer and departments which use the item in their operations, a specification describing the commodity can be prepared.

A specification describes the type, size and quality of a standardized item.¹ Such a description helps to eliminate misunder-

¹ See Appendix A for examples of specifications.

standings about the commodity to be purchased by making clear the exact item desired. This results in wider competition and simplifies inspection after delivery.

In preparing a specification, a town or city has complete freedom in establishing the minimum acceptable quality desired. For certain items such as gasoline, motor oil, paints and similar supplies this minimum may be set very high. For other materials such as scratch pads, calcium chloride for snow work and the like the minimum standard may be low enough to accept almost any reliable bidder's product.

A standard specification must be carefully prepared. Too narrow a specification may unintentionally eliminate commodities that would be acceptable or may even specify a commodity which is not manufactured. The tendency in modern purchasing is toward use of specifications and away from the purchase by brand name only. A vendor, when requested to bid on a standard specification, may offer the identical commodity at a fraction of the cost which he quotes when a brand name is used.

Assistance in Specification Preparation

A great deal of work has already been done in preparation of specifications by various governmental units and agencies. A town or city attempting to establish standard specifications may obtain this material as needed.

A municipality interested in a specific federal specification may write to General Services Administration, Washington, D.C., stating specifications desired.² Indexes of available federal specifications can be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents

² U.S. General Services Administration Regional Office No. 3, 7th and D Sts., S.W., Washington 25, D.C.

at nominal cost.³

Currently out of print but usually available in local libraries is The National Directory of Commodity Specifications and its Supplement.⁴ These publications of the National Bureau of Standards, United States Department of Commerce contain a classified list and brief description of standards and specifications developed by national technical societies, trade associations, other private organizations and the federal government. Included are names and addresses of standardizing agencies and directions for obtaining copies of their specifications.

Also available to interested towns and cities are current activities of the Commodity Standards Division of the United States Department of Commerce. Simplified Practice Recommendations are published periodically by this agency and may be obtained for a small fee. These recommendations are a "list of sizes, varieties, types, or grades of products which have been approved for regular stock purposes, after superfluous variety has been eliminated."⁵ In other words a simplified practice recommendation is a standard agreed upon by manufacturers, distributors and users of the commodity.

Their use by a town or city in developing a specification is somewhat limited as the process is essentially commercial and selective rather than creative as in specification preparation. Simplified Practice Recommendations may be useful, however, as a step preliminary

³ U.S. General Services Administration; Federal Supply Service, Federal Specifications and Standard Index with Supplementary Service (Washington:Office of the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office.) \$1.75.

⁴ United States Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards, Miscellaneous Publication M178 (1945) 1,311 pp. Supplement(1947) 322 pp.

⁵ U.S. Department of Commerce, Commodity Standards Division, Office of Industry and Commerce, Business Information Service, Catalog No. 979 p.1.

to standardization by providing a list of selected products on which a group of manufacturers, distributors and users have voluntarily agreed to concentrate their respective operations. It is in the interest of a governmental unit to take these recommendations into account in selection of standard items to replace unnecessary variety. Figure I is an illustration of a Simplified Practice Recommendation on granite curbstone.

FIGURE I

Simplified Practice Recommendation
on
Granite Curbstone

On August 16, 1927, a general conference of producers of granite curbstone drafted a simplified practice recommendation. The industry and its customers have since accepted, and approved for promulgation by the Department of Commerce, through the Bureau of Standards, the following simplified schedule of sizes of granite curbstone.

Width 5 inches. Depth when set in soil: 16 inches. The lengths shall be not less than 3 feet for corners and not less than 4 feet for straight curb, except when closures are required.

This recommendation, subject to regular revision by a standing committee of the industry, became effective January 15, 1953.

Another publication of the Commodity Standards Division is a classified list of Commercial Standards. "Commercial Standards establish standard quality requirements, methods of test, rating,

certification, and labeling of commodities and provide uniform bases for fair competition."⁶ A commercial standard is a specification voluntarily developed through concerted action of producers, distributors, testing laboratories and consumers. It is essentially a description of an article of commerce. A specification developed in this way serves as a basis for a clear understanding between buyer and seller. A town or city in the process of creating or revising a specification on a particular standardized commodity will find it worthwhile to refer to the commercial standard of that product as a guide.

Developing a Standard and Specification

A schedule for developing standard items and specifications describing them could include the following steps:

1. Establish a standards and specification committee composed of the town's or city's chief executive, the chief administrators of the departments and the purchasing officer. Technical consultants should be relied upon as needed.
2. Set up a time schedule for selection of standards for items used in common by the various departments. One or two items per month might be an objective. The number of items standardized at any one meeting of the committee will depend to some extent on the number of variations in use and the complexity of the commodity being standardized.
3. Once the committee decides on one acceptable equivalent to all the variations in use, a standard specification describing the commodity can be developed.

⁶ Ibid., Catalog No. 978, p.1.

4. Actual writing of the specification can be delegated by the committee to the purchasing officer or in the case of larger cities to a professional standards man. The proposed specification should be reviewed by the using departments and in some instances by a representative group of manufacturers or suppliers of the item prior to acceptance by the standards and specification committee.
5. As standard specifications are developed and agreed upon, the purchasing of the specified item should be delegated to the purchasing officer.
6. A newly developed specification should be adopted tentatively at first. After bids are solicited and performance of the commodity is observed under actual working conditions, the specification can be revised as needed before being adopted officially. Accepted specifications should be revised periodically to keep abreast of technological advances.

As standards and specifications are developed for particular commodities, estimates of the quantity operating departments will require during the next six months or a year should be requested by the purchasing officer. This is known as advance requisitioning and is based on past experience and more detailed budget preparation. In many Connecticut towns and cities that do not have an organized purchasing system, the only advance estimate being made by most department administrators is the dollar amount of supplies and materials which is prepared in conjunction with the annual budget.

It is not generally considered worthwhile to standardize and prepare specifications for items used in small quantities by only one or two departments. Commodities that are purchased infrequently and in small quantities should be listed according to products and brand

names that have proven satisfactory. This list should be referred to as need for the articles arises. Such a list will also be helpful should a competitive bid standard be desired.

Purchasing Administration

Under an organized purchasing plan, advance departmental requisitions are sent to a certain office or individual designated as the purchasing officer or agent. Here the requirements are consolidated; requests for bids sent out to responsible bidders; bids received and tabulated; and awards made.

Purchasing is a complex task. A competent purchasing agent is familiar with sources of supply, price and market conditions and the most favorable time to purchase each commodity. He knows the reputation of suppliers and their ability to serve the needs of the town or city. He is familiar with local ordinances regulating purchasing. He is also in a position to recommend changes which will result in more economy.

ADAPTABLE FORMS FOR ORGANIZED PURCHASING

Purchase Requisition

The purchasing process starts with a request from a using department for material necessary in carrying out its assigned responsibilities. Figure II is an illustration of an adaptable request form usually known as a purchase requisition.

Request for Quotation

Requirements for soliciting formal bids by Connecticut towns and cities vary according to local regulations. Most towns and cities require formal bids when the purchase order exceeds a specified amount. Purchases below this amount are solicited by open market quotations. Some communities also require formal bids when the total

No _____

Date _____

Suggested Suppliers

Signed _____
Department Head

Original: To be sent to Purchasing Agent

purchase value of a certain class of merchandise to be purchased within a certain period exceeds a specified amount. Some require at least three competitive bids on open-market purchases; others do not specify any required competition for open-market purchases.

A QUOTATION is a supplier's statement of his selling price for specified materials submitted in informal competition usually known as open-market purchasing.

A BID is a supplier's certified quotation submitted in formal competition with other vendors. To insure fair competition bids are submitted in sealed envelopes which are opened publicly at the time and place specified in the bid proposal.

The use of a request-for-quotation form, similar to Figure III, is generally considered the most effective method of soliciting open-market quotations, and in securing required competitive open-market quotations or non-competitive quotations. If a specification has been developed for the article to be purchased, a copy should be included.

Bid Proposal

When formal competition is required by local ordinance or charter provision bid proposals are sent to responsible and interested bidders. A bid proposal generally includes a bid proposal form, standard instructions to bidders and the standard specification for the commodity to be purchased.

A bid proposal form similar to Figure IV may be adapted for use in securing formal competition.

Standard instructions to bidders vary according to local regulation and requirements. Some of the items usually specified in standard instructions to bidders are listed in Figure V. Some towns and cities require more terms and conditions than this illustrative form

FIGURE .III

(Name of Town or City)

REQUEST FOR QUOTATION

To:

Request for Quotation No. _____

Please return on or before: _____

THIS IS NOT AN ORDER

1. The original copy of this inquiry with your quotation filled in must be signed and returned to (name and address of purchasing office).
2. The right is reserved to reject any or all quotations, and unless specified by the vendor, to accept any item in the quotation.
3. A separate price must be given for each item.
4. All prices must be F.O.B. Destination and include cost of boxing and cartage to delivery point stated below.
5. Taxes. Purchases made by the (name of city or town) are exempt from the payment of any sales, excise, or federal transportation taxes. Such taxes must not be included in quoted prices.
6. Guaranteed delivery date may be considered in making the award.
7. "Or Equal" - When a bid standard or equal is specified, the bidder may offer an article which he certifies to be equal in quality, performance, and in other essential characteristics to the bid standard. If bidder fails to name a substitute, he will be required to furnish the bid standard.

Quantity	Unit	Description	Unit Price		Net	Total Price
			List	Discount		

Note: If unit price quoted is based on any unit other than stated above, indicate the unit used and charge number of units accordingly

TOTAL NET BID

Date _____

Purchasing Agent

To be delivered to _____

We hereby agree to furnish and invoice above materials delivered in accordance with your requirements and terms at prices specified above.

Date delivery guaranteed _____ days after receipt of Purchase Order

Terms _____ % _____ Days

_____ % _____ Days

Signed _____

Date _____

Title _____

FIGURE IV

(Name of Town or City) Proposal No. _____

BID PROPOSAL

_____ Bids will be received until
To: _____; _____ 19 _____

THIS IS NOT AN ORDER

Bids are requested for furnishing the items described below subject to the Standard Instructions to Bidders enclosed herewith and to the terms and conditions outlined on the face hereof.

Quantity	Unit of Measure	Description	Unit Price			Total Price
			List	Discount	Net	

Note: If unit price
bid is based
on any unit
other than
stated above,
indicate the
unit used
and charge
number of
units accor-
dingly.

TOTAL NET BID

Date _____

Purchasing Agent

Cash discount will not be considered in determining lowest bidder, but will be taken into consideration in awarding tie bids.

To be delivered to _____

We hereby agree to furnish and invoice above materials delivered in accordance with your specifications, requirements and terms specified hereon and in the Standard Instructions to Bidders at prices specified above.

Date delivery guaranteed _____ days after receipt of Purchase Order

Terms _____ % _____ Days

_____ % _____ Days

Bidder

Street & Number

Date _____

City

State

Signed by

Title

FIGURE V

(Name of Town or City)

Return sealed bids to: (Name and address of Purchasing Agent)

STANDARD INSTRUCTIONS TO BIDDERS

1. Submit _____ signed copies of bid proposals sealed and addressed to (name and address of purchasing office). The envelope must bear the notation that it is a sealed bid along with the bid proposal number.
2. Bids received after the announced bid opening time will not be considered.
3. A separate price must be given for each item.
4. State prices F.O.B. Destination and include cost of boxing and cartage to delivery point stated on bid proposal, unless otherwise noted on bid proposal form.
5. Taxes. Purchases made by the (name of town or city) are exempt from the payment of any sales, excise, or federal transportation taxes. Such taxes must not be included in bid prices.
6. "Or Equal" - When a bid standard or equal is specified, the bidder may offer an article which he certifies to be equal in quality, performance, and in other essential characteristics to the bid standard. If bidder fails to name a substitute, he will be required to furnish the bid standard.
7. Right is reserved to increase or decrease by _____ per cent the quantities of any item or items ordered.
8. Right is reserved to reject any or all bids, or to accept separate items in a bid unless this right is denied by the bidder.
9. Articles which in any respect fail to conform with the specifications upon which the award is made will be rejected and held subject to the shipper's order at his wish and expense.
10. In case of default the (town or city) may procure its supplies from other sources and hold the original bidder or contractor liable for resulting increased costs.
11. Samples, if requested, must be furnished at bidder's expense and if not destroyed in test or retained as a standard, will be returned on the same terms, if requested.
12. Guaranteed delivery date may be considered in making the award.

contains; others require less. The detail will depend on the amount of contract protection desired. It should be recognized that involved and detailed terms and conditions generally act to restrict competition. Bidders are often skeptical of involved legal terminology and too many binding conditions which they may not understand or may misinterpret. The interests of the town or city must be protected against fraudulent or irresponsible suppliers but this should not be accomplished at the expense of responsible competition.

Forms for Summarizing Written Quotations

Public purchasing, like most public service activities, requires a record of action taken. A record should be kept of all quotations and bids received and of all awards made. If the award is not made to the bidder submitting the lowest bid, a complete justification of the award should be filed with other papers relating to the purchase. Figure VI illustrates a tabulation form which may be used to summarize competitive bids as an aid in determining the award.

Purchase Order

The form used to order against an accepted quotation or contract award is usually known as a purchase order. Figure VII is an illustration of a purchase order form.

FIGURE VI

Requisition No.		Summary of Competitive Bids				Name of Bidders								
Request for Quotation		Method of Purchase		Reason Supplier Selected										
Bid Proposal No.		<input type="checkbox"/> Telephone	<input type="checkbox"/> Lowest Price											
Tabulated by		<input type="checkbox"/> Open Market	<input type="checkbox"/> Better Delivery											
		<input type="checkbox"/> Written ADVERTISED-Bid Proposal	<input type="checkbox"/> Better Quality											
		<input type="checkbox"/> Better Design	<input type="checkbox"/> Only Avail. Source											
Item No.	Quantity	Unit of Measure	Description	Unit	Net Total	Unit	Net Total	Unit	Net Total	Unit	Net Total	Unit	Net Total	Re-marks
Awarded To			NET TOTAL											
Award Authorized By			Cash Discount											
			Cash Discounted											
			Net Total											
			Delivery											
			Rating											

(Name of Town or City)

No.

This number must appear on all invoices and packages

Date 19

If delivery is rejected, vendor will be notified and given reason for rejection. All rejected deliveries will be held at vendor's risk and he shall bear expense of removal.

Date delivery guaranteed _____ days after receipt of purchase order

Terms

Requisition No.		Department	Account to be charged No. _____	Request for Quotation No. _____	Request for Sealed Bid No. _____	Unless otherwise stated all prices F.O.B. Destination		
Item	Quantity	Unit	Description			Unit Price	Discount	Amount

TOTAL AMOUNT

- Authorized _____ Purchasing Agent _____
Approved as to availability of Funds _____

Comptroller

Seller's Acknowledgment

Figure VIII illustrates an acknowledgment form which may be included with a purchase order. The use of this form provides the purchasing agent with an acknowledgment from the supplier that the order has been received and delivery will or will not be made within the required delivery time. If delivery cannot be made on schedule, the purchasing agent will have more time to make necessary adjustments.

FIGURE VIII

SELLER'S ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Name of Town or City_____

Receipt of your order No._____is hereby acknowledged and accepted in accordance with the terms and conditions outlined on the face thereof.

Shipment will be made on or about_____19____
Seller's Firm Name

Date_____19____
By_____
Seller's Authorized Agent

Receiving Report

The requisitioning department reports the receipt of goods to the purchasing office on a Receiving Report form similar to Figure IX. Some communities use a partial carbon of their purchase order form modified to make it a receiving report to record receipt of goods. This saves typing and automatically assigns the proper purchase order number, purchase requisition number, and account number to the goods received.

FIGURE IX

(Name of Town or City)

RECEIVING REPORT

Received from: _____ Date Received _____
_____ Department _____
_____ Division _____
Delivery Authorized by
Purchase Order No. _____

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Partial		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Final (Check Proper Box)	
Quantity Received	Unit of Measure	Description	Condition

Remarks:

Received by: _____ Approved for Payment
_____ Head of Department
_____ Date

SOME MONEY SAVING TECHNIQUES

Standing Order

In many communities, storage is a problem. This has often served as a deterrent to quantity purchasing. To overcome this, some communities request quotations on a standing order basis. This means the town or city agrees to purchase a specified quantity of each product desired, but only as needed. Price is quoted on the basis of the total quantity. Payments are usually made after each delivery.

Price Agreements

Another method often used to overcome storage problems is a price agreement contract. This arrangement is based on an agreed price for a specified period. The supplier contracts to supply all requirements of a particular commodity for an established period. The town or city usually furnishes the supplier with an estimate of probable needs but is not obligated to purchase or accept delivery of any definite quantity. Once a price agreement contract has been executed by the purchasing agent, the using departments may order directly against the contract.

Testing

Testing delivered goods to determine adherence to specifications is often a difficult problem, especially in small towns and cities with limited facilities. Unless some effort is made, however, specifications will be of no value. When testing, even if it can be only occasional, is made part of the purchasing routine, vendors know they must always conform to specifications or run the risk of being caught in an attempt to defraud.

Realizing that many small governmental units lack adequate testing facilities, the National Bureau of Standards of the United States Department of Commerce has compiled a list of manufacturers who will

supply commodities as specified in standard federal specifications. The Bureau of Standards has also compiled a Directory of Commercial Testing and College Research Laboratories. This alphabetical and geographical listing indicates what commodities a particular laboratory is prepared to test. This has proven helpful to towns or cities not equipped to test and therefore hesitant to buy on specifications.

Discounts and Taxes

In some instances, towns and cities are entitled to a discount off list price ranging from 10 per cent to 40 per cent. Frequently a discount for prompt payment is also available. The purchasing agent should try to expedite the acceptance of the satisfactorily completed order and the audit of the vendor's invoice to earn the cash discount. Cash discount is usually not considered in determining the lowest bidder except in case of tie bids.

Invoices should be carefully checked before approval to make sure the local unit is not paying taxes from which it is exempt. Towns and cities in Connecticut are exempt from sales taxes, excise taxes, and the federal transportation tax. Lump sum invoicing should be discouraged as it is often more difficult to determine if the price stated is correct.

Cooperative Purchasing

A system of cooperative buying among various governmental units is in effect in an increasing number of localities. Cooperative purchasing agreements may be arranged between several towns; towns and cities; a city, town, school district, fire district, and county or any combination of units of government. Some of the items that are currently purchased through the use of cooperative purchase agreements include: coal, gasoline, soap, fuel oil, miscellaneous highway materials, mimeograph paper, stencils, typewriter ribbons and carbon

paper. Some local governments are profiting from a cooperative purchasing system arranged through their membership in a municipal league or association of towns and cities. Regardless of the organization structure used, the system works on the principle of quantity buying. The larger the order to be placed, the keener and wider the competition. The usual result is a lower unit price for all participants.

Central Stores

Most towns and cities keep on hand a certain amount of commodities that are in constant or frequent demand. These usually include small stocks of stationery, office supplies and a limited supply of repair parts. Under a decentralized purchasing system, the using departments usually purchase and store these items. Common practice in an organized system is a central store room operated by the purchasing office from which using departments requisition their current needs.

Experience will determine the particular items to be centrally stored but it should be recognized that under present day marketing practices central stores may or may not provide dollar savings. Some communities may determine it is unprofitable for them to invest heavily in stored supplies. This may be especially true for a small community where a large number of different items are used but the volume of consumption is low. These towns and cities may find standing order arrangements or price agreement contracts provide them with a quantity price but help to eliminate storage problems. Under either of these arrangements, the vendor supplies the storage facilities and acts as storekeeper.

No Definite Pattern

The degree to which a community should organize its purchasing process cannot easily be predetermined. Organized purchasing is not an established and definable framework of procedures and forms readily

adaptable to all sizes and types of governmental units. How much a community decides to organize its buying process depends to a large extent on its past experience, present requirements and future desires.

As marketing conditions require more day to day attention and technical processes make more goods available in a variety of forms, the task of buying for the public must develop more efficient and more economical methods. Some organization becomes essential. No set rule applies except the use of common sense with an objective of efficient and effective use of the tax dollar.

Appendix A

SAMPLE SPECIFICATIONS

PAPER NAPKINS:

QUALITY: Shall be clear white, full machine-creped and embossed. The composition shall be not less than 80% bleached chemical pulp and not more than 20% ground wood pulp.

SIZE: Shall be 13" x 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ ", with a tolerance of plus or minus $\frac{1}{4}$ ".

BURSTING STRENGTH: Four-ply average not less than 9 points Mullen Test on a paper condition to 70 degrees F. at 50 relative humidity.

WEIGHT: 24" x 36" - 480 sheets basis, 12 pounds to 13 pounds.

WORKMANSHIP: Napkins shall be uniformly made and the edges shall be well finished. The napkins shall be reasonably soft to the touch and shall be free from large holes and defects.

FOLDING: Shall be folded quarter-fold.

BACKING: Shall be banded in 125's and securely wrapped in packages of 500. These packages shall be packed in a standard carton containing ten (10) packages - (5,000 napkins).

IDENTIFICATION: Each carton shall bear a label or stencil with the following information thereon:

Name and address of manufacturer.

Name and address of contractor.

name, size and number of napkins contained therein.

TOPSOIL

Topsoil shall be a friable natural topsoil of loamy character, without admixture of subsoil material. It shall contain a normal amount of decomposed organic matter and shall be free from heavy clay, coarse sand, stones, lumps, plants, roots, sticks or other foreign materials. The bidders shall furnish to the Superintendent of Parks for his approval

a sample of the topsoil.

CLAY

Clay shall be of a nature suitable for baseball use and passed through a $\frac{1}{4}$ inch screen, and shall be furnished free from all foreign matter. The bidders shall furnish to the Superintendent of Parks for his approval a sample of the clay.

SPARK PLUGS

QUALITY: Spark plugs bid upon shall meet the requirements of Federal Specification W-P-506a, including the latest supplements.

OIL FUEL FOR BURNERS

Wherever "specified" is used herein, it shall mean "specified in the invitation to bid and the order."

INTENT: This specification describes fuel oil for use in burner.

KIND: (A) Fuel Oil shall be of three grades: No. 2, No. 4, No. 6.

(B) Grade shall be as specified.

PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL REQUIREMENTS: Fuel oil for use in burners shall be a hydro-carbon oil free from alkali, mineral acid, grit and fibrous or other foreign matter likely to clog or injure the burners or appurtenances. Grade 2 shall be a moderately volatile distillate oil for use in burners preparing fuel for burning by a combination of vaporization and atomization where oil is burned in contact or in close proximity with metal or refractory surfaces that are on an integral part of the burner. Grade 4 shall be a fuel oil for burner installations not equipped with preheating facilities. Grade 6 shall be a fuel oil for use in burners equipped with preheaters permitting a high viscosity fuel. Fuel oil for burners shall comply with the requirements of Table I for the grade indicated.

Table I

Requirement	No. 2	No. 4	No. 6
Flash Point °F. Min.	115 or legal	115 or legal	150
Pour Point °F. Max.	5	20	
Water & Sediment, % Max.	.10	.5	2.0
*Carbon Residue, % Max.	.33		
Viscosity Seconds, S.U. 100 °F. Max. Min.	40	125 45	
Viscosity Seconds S.F. 122 °F. Max. Min.			300 45
Distillation, 90% Point, °F. Max.	675		
Gravity, ° ap 1 Minimum	26		
Sulphur, % Maximum	1.0	1.0	2.0
Corrosion	Pass	Pass	Pass

Sampling and Methods of Test

METHODS OF TEST: At least two quarts of each grade shall be taken as representing the delivery thereof. Fuel oils for burners shall be tested in accordance with the following methods of test of the American Society for Testing Materials:

<u>Test</u>	<u>A.S.T.M. Designations*</u>
Flash Point	D 93
Pour Point	D 97
Water and Sediment	D 96
Carbon Residue	D 189
Distillation	D 86
Viscosity	D 88
Sulphur	D 129
Corrosion	D 130
Gravity	D 287

* Latest Revision in effect at the time of the invitation to bid.

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INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC SERVICE
UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

STORRS, CONNECTICUT

Informational Bulletin #12

April 1956

SOCIAL SECURITY FOR EMPLOYEES OF CONNECTICUT MUNICIPALITIES

By

Edwin A. Gere, Jr.
Research Assistant

Certain employees of Connecticut municipalities presently participating in a retirement or pension plan are now eligible for coverage under the Federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance System, more commonly referred to as the Social Security System.

Recent changes in Connecticut law have made it possible for the following categories of employees to participate:

- (1) Individuals in positions covered under the Connecticut municipal employees retirement fund or any local retirement system but who themselves are ineligible for membership in the retirement system.
- (2) All members of any local retirement system established by special act, provided such special act is amended to allow, or already provides for, additional coverage under social security.
- (3) All members of any local retirement system not established by statute.¹

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¹Sec. 409d and 410d, 1955 Supplement to the General Statutes of Connecticut.

Local employees in category (1) above have had no coverage under any retirement plan prior to the 1955 changes just described. Those employees in categories (2) and (3) have in the past found it necessary to drop, as a group, their existing retirement system before adopting OASI. Under the new law the legislative body of a municipality may request the governor to hold a referendum, at which employees of the municipality who are members of the retirement system vote on adopting social security.² Under federal law this referendum must be by secret, written ballot, must be supervised by the governor or his agent (in this case it would be the State Retirement Commission), and must receive a majority vote. Only those employees who are members of the retirement system are eligible to vote, and they must be given ninety days notice of the referendum. If the vote favors adoption of social security, all individuals in positions covered under the retirement system will be covered under social security.

Any municipality wishing to provide social security coverage for employees in any of the categories listed may contact the State Retirement Commission for information. Application forms will be furnished upon request.

What Is Social Security?

Social security, or Old Age and Survivors Insurance, is a system of protection for a worker and his family to which both the employee and his employer contribute a premium based on the employee's earnings. The

²Sec. 411d.

system, operated by the federal government, has two main features: (1) a retirement program which takes effect at age 65 and (2) a program of survivors benefits.

The Social Security Law was enacted in 1935, but coverage was not extended to public employees until 1950. In that year the federal law was amended to permit employees of state and local governments the option of social security coverage, provided they were not members of an existing public employee retirement program.

Congress amended the Social Security Law again in 1954 to permit, under certain conditions, extension of OASI to state and local governmental employees already covered by a retirement plan. Approval of the state is one required condition. The 1954 federal amendment is of no value to a local government unless its state government passes legislation enabling local governments to participate. This the state of Connecticut accomplished in 1955.

What Are the Benefits of Social Security?

OASI differs from most other public and private retirement systems because of its survivors benefits which provide for a lump sum funeral expense payment not to exceed \$255, and a monthly payment up to a maximum of \$200 to the following survivors--(1) widows 65 years of age and over, (2) widows or dependent divorced wives (regardless of age) if caring for a child, (3) children under 18 years, (4) dependent widowers 65 or over, and (5) dependent parents 65 or over.

Retirement benefits, as well as survivors benefits just mentioned,

are determined by the average monthly income of the insured person. The first \$4200 of a person's income may now be counted for social security benefits, and both employer and employee contribute to the system at the current rate of 2 per cent of income. This rate is scheduled to increase .5 per cent each five years until it reaches a stabilized rate of 4 per cent in 1975.

To be eligible for social security benefits a worker in a covered position must reach a "fully insured" or "currently insured" status by working a certain minimum number of quarters, depending on his age. Provisions for qualifying are in most cases quite liberal.³

Benefits payable under social security are outlined in Table I.

TABLE I. OLD-AGE AND SURVIVORS INSURANCE BENEFITS

Average monthly earnings ⁴	Monthly Old-Age Benefits		Monthly Survivors Benefits		
	Worker	Worker and wife	Widow, Widower, child, parent	Widow and 1 child	Widow and 2 children
\$150	\$68.50	\$102.80	\$51.40	\$102.80	\$102.00
200	78.50	117.80	58.90	117.80	157.10
250	88.50	132.80	66.40	132.80	177.20
300	98.50	147.80	73.90	147.80	197.10
350	108.50	162.80	81.40	162.80	200.00

³See Your Social Security, listed in Suggestions for Further Reading, for an explanation of terms "fully insured" and "currently insured".

⁴After drop-out of up to five years of lowest (or no) earnings.

Advantages of Social Security and Local Retirement System Combination

Major advantages of combining social security with a local retirement plan are:

1. Under a combined plan retirement benefits are usually greater.
2. Survivors benefits, not generally a feature of local retirement systems, are available.
3. Retirement benefits are also payable to one's wife when she reaches age 65.
4. Employers are in a much better position to attract high calibre employees when they can offer the advantages of social security. Social security rights are vested rights and are transferrable from one covered position to another, anywhere in the country.
5. Added benefits of social security may be had at no more cost to employer and employee than it costs them now for their existing retirement system.

Combining OASI and Local Retirement Systems

For those eligible local government employees who elect to combine their local retirement plan with social security, benefits can be substantial. And enjoyment of benefits under both systems need not be more costly than membership in their present plan alone. Moreover, the independence of the local pension plan can be preserved despite addition of social security.

Disadvantage of Combination

A disadvantage of combining social security with a local retirement

system is that in any such plan the local unit would have no control over social security benefits and contribution rates. An agreement between the state and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare cannot be rescinded for at least five years. Local government units, however, are no worse off in this respect than private employers who have no choice at all.

How to Combine OASI and Local Plan

In planning a combination of OASI with an existing retirement system, there are three basic alternatives from which to choose. They are each different, but together they meet the varying needs and desires of all towns and cities. Each retirement system has its own characteristics according to its total size, the average age of its members and the ability and desire of its members to contribute to it. Each OASI plan, therefore, should be studied carefully by qualified retirement experts before the most feasible alternative may be selected. The three alternatives are (1) supplementation, (2) integration, and (3) coordination.

Supplementation

Supplementation is probably the simplest method of combining the two systems. It consists of merely adding social security to the local plan. While this procedure is uncomplicated and retains the complete integrity of the existing system, it is also quite expensive to both employer and employee. Let's take the Connecticut Municipal Employees' Retirement Fund as an example. A member contributes 5 per cent of his salary, and the town or city appropriates a fixed sum as its share.

With the addition of social security, both the employer and employee would contribute 2 per cent of the first \$4200 of the employee's salary, earmarking a relatively large amount (approximately 7 per cent) of salary for retirement contributions.

Increased costs, however, would mean increased benefits to employees. Table II illustrates how supplementation would effect two employees, one having thirty years service and an average salary of \$3000, the other having the same service and a \$2400 average.

TABLE II. BENEFITS PAYABLE UNDER SUPPLEMENTATION

(Monthly benefits to employee, age 65, 30 years service, under straight supplementation of CMERF by OASI)

	\$3000 Employee		\$2400 Employee	
	Worker	Worker and wife, age 65	Worker	Worker and wife, age 65
OASI Benefits	\$ 88.50	\$132.80	\$78.50	\$117.80
CMERF ^a Benefits	113.80	113.80	91.10	91.10
Total Benefits	\$202.30	\$246.60	\$169.60	\$208.90

^aConnecticut Municipal Employees Retirement Fund.

One disadvantage of supplementation is its relatively high cost for both employer and employee. As a result, the amount of retirement benefit is a high percentage of the employee's working salary and in some instances even exceeds it.⁵ Public approval of a system which in

⁵Note the figure \$208.90 in Table II above.

some cases pays a retired employee more than he earned when working would be difficult to obtain.

Integration or Offset

Integration involves the fusion of the existing retirement plan with social security in which a complete merging of benefits and contributions is generally achieved. Present benefits would be directly offset by those of social security. Total cost would approximate that of the existing system because contributions to the existing system could be reduced to $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 per cent of salary. A complete offset plan would be of minimum value because benefits would be small, and any increase in social security benefits would not be realized. If a city employee, for instance, upon retirement were eligible for a pension of \$250 monthly and his monthly social security benefit were \$100, the \$250 would be offset or reduced by the \$100, leaving benefits of \$150 from his city pension. If in time, the individual's social security benefit were increased to say, \$125, his original benefit of \$250 would be offset by the \$125, leaving \$125 to be paid from the local retirement plan. Despite this increase in social security benefits from \$100 to \$125, his total benefits would remain at \$250. Survivors benefits, then, represent the only apparent advantage of a 100 per cent offset plan.

50 Per Cent Offset

A 50 per cent offset plan has more advantageous features. Using the same example, the retired person's \$250 local benefit would be offset by only one-half of the \$100 social security benefit. By this

arrangement he would then receive \$200 monthly from his local retirement plan plus \$100 social security, for combined benefits of \$300 monthly. This example applies for a worker retiring at age 65. If he retires prior to age 65 he would receive from the local system the full amount of his retirement pension. Then at age 65 the offset plan would come into effect.

The 50 per cent offset plan provides sufficiently liberal survivors and retirement benefits, and its cost would be no more than that of any existing local retirement system--that is, about 5 per cent (2 per cent to social security at the current rate and $2\frac{1}{2}$ -3 per cent to local system). Disadvantages of the plan are: (1) A complete merging with social security of benefits and contributions would be generally achieved, with a resultant loss of identity to the local retirement system; (2) It would be administratively difficult to determine OASI benefits for employees who may have had considerable social security coverage in other employment and a minimum of service in the local retirement system.

Coordination

Coordination may be achieved by adopting social security and at the same time revising the existing local system downward as to contributions and benefits, and operating the two systems independently. Total contributions by an employee would under this plan approximate the present single contribution to a local retirement system because the downward revision would, as in the 50 per cent offset plan, call for a $2\frac{1}{2}$ -3 per cent employee contribution to the local plan instead of

the current average 5 per cent. Table III cites examples of retirement benefits obtainable under one type of coordination plan.

TABLE III. BENEFITS PAYABLE UNDER COORDINATION PLAN AT AGE 65

(Contributions by members: To retirement system--2 per cent of first \$350 of monthly salary, 4 per cent of salary above \$350; to social security--prescribed rates)

Average Monthly Compensation	20 Years Service		30 Years Service		40 Years Service	
	Local System Benefit	Social Security	Local System Benefit	Social Security	Local System Benefit	Social Security
\$150	\$20.00	\$68.50	\$30.00	\$68.50	\$40.00	\$68.50
200	26.67	78.50	40.00	78.50	53.33	78.50
250	33.33	88.50	50.00	88.50	66.66	88.50
300	40.00	98.50	60.00	98.50	80.00	98.50
400	63.33	108.50	95.00	108.50	126.66	108.50
500	96.66	108.50	145.00	108.50	193.33	108.50
600	130.00	108.50	195.00	108.50	260.00	108.50

Source: Municipal Finance Officers Association of the United States and Canada.

The plan outlined in Table III requires a smaller percentage of contribution on the first \$350 of monthly salary than on that part of the salary above \$350. This is because social security applies only to the first \$350 of monthly salary. So equalization is here achieved by a 2 per cent contribution to both the local retirement system and social security on the first \$350, and by a 4 per cent contribution to the local retirement system alone, on that part of salary above \$350. Coordination plans can be styled to meet any particular desire or need. This is just one illustration.

Social security benefits are computed on this basis--55 per cent of the first \$110 of average monthly earnings and 20 per cent of the next \$240. Because of these substantial benefits on the first \$110, a coordination plan may be devised providing for contribution to the local retirement system based only on that part of an employee's salary above \$110 monthly. Table IV illustrates this type of arrangement.

TABLE IV. BENEFITS PAYABLE UNDER COORDINATION PLAN AT AGE 65

(Contributions by members: To retirement system, 4 per cent of salary in excess of \$110 monthly; to social security--prescribed rates)

Average Monthly Compensation	20 Years Service		30 Years Service		40 Years Service	
	Local System Benefit	Social Security	Local System Benefit	Social Security	Local System Benefit	Social Security
\$150	\$10.00	\$68.50	\$15.00	\$68.50	\$20.00	\$68.50
200	22.50	78.50	33.75	78.50	45.00	78.50
250	35.00	88.50	52.50	88.50	70.00	88.50
300	47.50	98.50	71.25	98.50	95.00	98.50
400	72.50	108.50	108.75	108.50	145.00	108.50
500	97.50	108.50	146.25	108.50	195.00	108.50
600	122.50	108.50	183.75	108.50	245.00	108.50

Source: Municipal Finance Officers Association of the United States and Canada.

Simple coordination may also be achieved by a straight, but reduced, contribution on all monthly salary of say, 3 per cent, plus the regular social security contribution. Other plans may be devised to accommodate those of long service who have already contributed substantially to the local retirement system, and who rightly wish to insure for themselves a high monthly retirement benefit.

Chief advantages of coordination are that under it social security and a local system may function independently of each other and that it is easily adaptable to meet the different problems of various retirement systems. In other words, coordination plans may be tailored to suit the particular needs of individual retirement systems, as expressed by individual members of such systems.

Summary

Private industry has for many years employed various methods for combining social security benefits with a company retirement program. Both employers and employees have enjoyed benefits to be gained from such combinations. Public employees, not having had the authority until recent years to enroll under social security, have had less experience with the combination but are well pleased with its benefits wherever it is in use. All plans described in these pages are in use now.

It is in the best interest of local governments that the pros and cons of social security be given serious consideration prior to deciding whether to accept it. Qualified retirement experts should be consulted for the subject is admittedly complicated and should not be oversimplified.

This short bulletin is intended merely to point out arguments for and against social security and to show by way of a few examples how a combination may be achieved. Suggestions for further reading, listed on the following page, may be helpful in the event that additional study is desired.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Coordinating Local Retirement Systems with Federal Social Security.

Published by Municipal Finance Officers Association of the United States and Canada, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Price 75¢. Pamphlet.

The Coordination of Federal Social Security with Public Employee

Retirement Plans. Edwin Shields Hewitt and Associates, Libertyville, Illinois. Pamphlet.

Social Security and Texas Governments. By John E. Swanson, Published in Public Affairs Comment by Institute of Public Affairs, University of Texas, Austin, March 1955. Pamphlet.

Your Social Security and Old Age and Survivors Insurance for Employees of State and Local Governments, two pamphlets for bulk distribution.

Available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price \$6.50 per 100 copies.

Single copies free at nearest Social Security Office.

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INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC SERVICE THE UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

STORRS, CONNECTICUT

Special Bulletin

November, 1959

REFERENCE MANUAL TO

PROPERTY TAX EXEMPTIONS FOR VETERANS AND THE BLIND

Prepared by

Borden V. Mahoney, C.A.E.
Chief Deputy Assessor
Hartford, Connecticut

Published by

Institute of Public Service
The University of Connecticut

in cooperation with

Connecticut Association of Assessing Officers
and
City of Hartford, Office of the Assessor

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TO ALL CONNECTICUT ASSESSORS:

The "Veterans' Exemptions" manual, compiled for the use of the Hartford Assessor's office, is submitted for use of all who may desire such a resume.

We only request that other Assessors compare our interpretations with theirs and beg that any inaccuracies be called to our attention.

These are our efforts to set down in orderly, usable fashion a composite of the general rules affecting the administration of exemptions to property of veterans and the blind.

Written in short statements, it attempts to convey the meaning of present applicable statutes (November 1959) through easy reference, rather than a continual pursuit of the elusive intent of the law by reading ever again the General Statutes.

For the most part, credit is indeed due Mr. Borden V. Mahoney, C.A.E., Chief Deputy Assessor, Hartford, for diligent study and careful analysis of a problem that is vexing to all Connecticut Assessors.

Fred H. Newton, C.A.E.
City Assessor, Hartford

DATES OF WAR SERVICE

VETERAN MUST HAVE SERVICE RECORD BETWEEN FOLLOWING DATES TO QUALIFY FOR EXEMPTION:

KOREAN WAR	June 27, 1950 to Oct. 27, 1953
WORLD WAR II	Dec. 7, 1941 to Dec. 31, 1947
WORLD WAR I	Apr. 6, 1917 to July 2, 1921
MEXICAN BORDER EXPEDITION	Mar. 10, 1916 to Apr. 6, 1917
NICARAGUAN EXPEDITION	Aug. 28, 1912 to Nov. 2, 1913
(PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION	Aug. 13, 1898 to July 4, 1902
(
(MORO PROVINCE (must have	Extended to July 15, 1903
(actively participated)	
BOXER REBELLION (CHINA RELIEF)	June 20, 1900 to May 12, 1901
(must have actively participated)	
SPANISH AMERICAN WAR	Apr. 21, 1898 to Apr. 11, 1899

(From General Statutes Sec. 27-103 Revision 1958)

THE ABOVE DATES ARE DESIGNATED
AS TIME OF WAR
UNLESS OTHERWISE PROVIDED.

VETERANS' PROOF FOR EXEMPTION

1. Must have honorable discharge and have same recorded in Town Clerk's office.
 - (a) Discharge must show time of service between dates as shown on Page 1.
 - (b) Commissioned officers of WORLD WAR II received service certificates placing them on inactive status. These are honorable discharges within the meaning of the statute.
 - (c) Separation papers issued to men in the KOREAN ACTION - these are honorable discharges within the meaning of the statute.

DEFINITION OF HONORABLE DISCHARGE

Attorney General Opinion
October 9, 1945.

- (d) Any official document issued by the authority of the U.S. Government which shows that the change of individuals' status from active to inactive duty - must have on its face that the separation was honorable (honorable conditions), etc.

EXCEPTIONS

- (e) In absence of discharge or certified copy, a veteran must appear before the Assessor for examination under oath - supported by two affidavits of disinterested persons showing the claimant
 - (1) Served in time of war.
 - (2) Received an honorable discharge.

OR

If unable to appear by reason of service in the Armed Forces

- (1) He can establish his right to exemption until he can personally appear

BY

- (2) Forwarding to Town Clerk annually, a written statement from his Commanding Officer
 - (a) Stating that he is personally serving.
 - (b) He is unable to appear due to service.
 - (c) Date of entrance into service.

Must have served during one of the periods as shown on Page 1.

- (3) This statement must be received in the town where exemption is claimed before the Board of Tax Review completes its duties.

OR

- (4) Any person claiming exemption of a relative by reason of service in Armed Forces

- (1) Offer to be examined under oath by Assessor.
- (2) Furnish two affidavits by disinterested persons, showing
 - (a) The service of such relative.
 - (b) The honorable discharge or death in service.
 - (c) Relationship of claimant to veteran.
- (3) The Town Clerk shall record where these discharges, affidavits, etc. are presented for record - shall record such papers in full and shall list the names of such claimants without remuneration.

AND THEREAFTER

- (5) Any person entitled to such exemption who shall have changed his legal residence, may establish his right to such exemption in the town to which he has removed.
 - (1) By exhibiting to the Town Clerk
 - (a) Certified copy of discharge or affidavit.

TOWN CLERK THEN SHALL

- (a) Take and record sufficient data to satisfy exemption requirements.
- (b) Note town where original discharge is recorded

NO BOARD OF ASSESSORS OR BOARD OF TAX REVIEW SHALL ALLOW ANY SUCH CLAIM FOR EXEMPTION UNLESS VETERANS' PROOF OF SERVICE IS FILED IN THE TOWN CLERK'S OFFICE OF THAT TOWN.

VETERANS - TO QUALIFY FOR EXEMPTIONS

NOTE: As to Disabled Veterans (See Page 7)

1. Must have honorable discharge.
 - (a) Must have honorable discharge on record in Town Clerk's office before expiration of time for Board of Tax Review to complete its duties.
 - (b) Must be a resident of state.
Must be a resident of town on assessment date.
 - (c) Property must be in veteran's or wife's name on assessment date.
 - (d) TO QUALIFY: discharge or separation papers must show record of service during dates as stated on page 1.
 - (e) RETIRED VETERAN: after serving 30 years; reaching age limit; honorable discharge - entitled to \$1,000 exemption.

All exemptions must be applied first against property that is in veteran's name.

SPOUSE OF VETERAN

1. Veteran must have qualified.
2. Spouse must be domiciled with veteran.
3. Spouse can receive total amount of veteran's exemption if he does not have taxable property in his name.

4. Spouse may receive balance of veteran's exemption if owner of taxable property and veteran lacks enough taxable property in his own name.
5. Property must be in spouse's name on tax date.

Spouse in this sense means husband or wife of qualified veteran.

WIDOWS OF VETERANS

TO QUALIFY

Gen. Statutes Rev. 1958 Sec. 12 (21b) (22) (23) (24)

1. Must be a resident of state.
2. Must be a resident of city on assessment date.
3. Veteran's discharge must be on record in Town Clerk's office,

OR

qualified under other provisions of Veterans' Legislation.

4. Widow, during her widowhood or property belonging to or held in trust for minor children, or both, is entitled to the amount of exemption that husband received or was entitled to receive at time of death.
5. Any widow during her widowhood
 - (1) of one who has served in Armed Forces of U.S. in time of war.
 - (2) of one being a citizen who has served in Armed Forces of government allied with U.S. in time of World War II and has died during service or after receiving honorable discharge

IS ENTITLED TO

- (a) \$1,000 exemption applied to property held in her name, or lacking same, to any property held in trust for minor child.

OR

- (b) \$3,000 exemption if death was due to service and occurred while on active duty.
6. Any widow of qualified veterans during her widowhood, receiving or has received a pension, annuity or compensation from U.S. is entitled to \$1,000 exemption.

WIDOWED MOTHER

General Statutes Sec. 12-25

1. Must be a resident of this State.
2. Must be a resident of city on assessment date.
3. Widowed mother to qualify for \$1,000 (during her widowhood) only if:
 - (a) Veteran has left no widow.
 - (b) Widow has remarried or died.
 - (c) Veteran has died during service or after receiving an honorable discharge therefrom.

Property must be in spouse's name on tax

General Statutes Sec. 12-25

II. QUALIFY

General Statutes Sec. 12-25 (a) (1) (2) (3) (4)

1. Must be a resident of state.

2. Must be a resident of city on assessment date.

3. Spouse's discharge must be on record in town.

Qualified under other provisions of Veterans' legislation.

Widow, during her husband's or property before death, be an heir to his

estate or children, or both, is entitled to the amount of any

insurance or was entitled to receive at time of death

any widow during her husband's

of one who has served in armed forces of U.S. in time of war.

(A) of one being a citizen who has served in armed forces of U.S.

(B) allied with U.S. in time of war or civil war II and discharged

or after receiving honorable discharge

IS APPLICABLE TO

(1) \$1,000 exemption applied to property held in her name or jointly

same, to any property held in trust for her and her

(2) \$3,000 exemption if death was due to service and occurred while

on active duty.

Widow of qualified veterans during her husband's, residing or has

received a pension, annuity or compensation from U.S. is entitled to

\$7,500 exemption

General Statutes Sec. 12-25

1. Must be a resident of this state.

2. Must be a resident of city on assessment date.

3. Veteran must qualify for \$1,000 (during her husband's) only in

(A) Veteran has left no widow.

(B) Veteran is remarried or died.

(C) Veteran has died during service or after receiving an honorable

discharge therefrom.

FATHER or MOTHER of VETERANS

General Statutes Revision 1958 Sec. 12-26

4. Property held in trust for any father or mother:
- (1) Must be a resident of this State.
 - (2) Must be a resident of town on assessment date.
 - (3) Veteran must have qualified.
 - (4) Entitled to \$1,000 exemption only.

TO QUALIFY

- (1) Father or mother must receive or has received a pension, annuity or compensation from U. S. Government.
- (2) If such parent shall lack said amount in own name, balance or whole amount may be applied against property in name of spouse who is domiciled with him.

DISABILITY RATINGS

General Statutes Sec. 12-20

10 to	25%	1,500	Exemption
26 to	50%	2,000	"
51 to	75%	2,500	"
76 to	100%	3,000	"

1. A veteran to qualify for above exemption must have an honorable discharge and a letter from the Veterans' Administration giving the per cent of disability and the date it commenced. This shall be furnished to the Assessors annually.
2. Any veteran upon reaching 65, having at least 10% disability, automatically receives 100% or \$3,000 exemption thereafter. Proof of age shall be furnished the Assessor. This veteran does not have to file annual proofs after age of 65.
3. A veteran may receive disability rating without serving in time of war. If holder has an honorable discharge, he is qualified for exemption. The disability need not be service connected.
4. No veteran entitled to exemption under this section or any other section shall receive more than one exemption.

EXCEPTION

Any veteran or person who has been unable to submit evidence of disability rating in the manner required or who has failed to submit such evidence, i.e., honorable discharge, affidavit, V. A. letter (proof of service) may, when he obtains such evidence satisfactory to the Assessor, (Gen. Statutes Sec. 12-20)

- (1) Make application to the Tax Collector within one year after he obtains such proof

OR

- (2) Within one year from the time that the Board of Tax Review's

duties expire, as the case may be.

- (3) For abatement in case the tax has not been paid.

OR

- (4) Refund in case the whole tax or part of the whole tax has been paid.

Such abatement or refund may be made retroactively to include the assessment day next succeeding the date as of which such person was entitled to such disability rating as determined by the Veterans' Administration,

BUT

in no case shall any abatement or refund be made for a period greater than (3) years.

Example: Current year plus two preceeding years if Veterans' Administration letter is so dated that veteran is so entitled to same.

LOSS of LEG or ARM

Any qualified veteran receiving a pension, annuity or compensation because of the loss in service of a leg or arm, or that which is considered by rules of the Veterans' Administration - Pension Office or Bureau of War Risk Insurance the equivalent of such loss, is entitled to \$3,000 exemption.

NATIONAL GUARD INSTRUCTORS

Gen. Statutes Sec. 12-28

MUST BE IN REGULAR BRANCH OF ARMED SERVICES:

- (a) Detailed for instruction of National Guard.
- (b) Entitled to \$1,000.
Entitled to an additional \$2,000 exemption on personal property owned by them. Property must consist of military equipment, furniture and anything necessary or convenient to carrying out such duties.

MARITIME SERVICE

- (1) The statutes make no present exemption provision for members of the Maritime Service.
- (2) All such provisions became obsolete on December 31, 1946.

TAX COLLECTOR'S PART IN EXEMPTION PROCESS

During World War II legislation was passed allowing a veteran in service of a relative to appear before the Tax Collector to prove right to exemption. Once proved to the Tax Collector, this exemption became part of a permanent file and veteran was allowed exemption as long as he remained a resident of

that town. This legislation expired December 31, 1947 and the file should be closed as of that date.

HENCEFORTH

The Tax Collector is interested only in refunds or abatements to:

- (a) Disabled veterans filing too late for Assessors or Board of Tax Review to act.
- (b) Blind persons filing too late for Assessors or Board of Tax Review to act.
- (c) All applications for refunds or abatements by disabled veterans, spouse or minor children and others covered by foregoing legislation.

SERVICE WITH ALLIED ARMIES

WORLD WAR I

Required that veteran be a resident of United States at time of enlistment, served 90 days, received honorable discharge and be a citizen at time of application for exemption. Gen. Statutes Sec. 12-82.

WORLD WAR II

Veteran must have been a citizen and resident of State at time of enlistment and received an honorable discharge. Gen. Statutes Sec. 12-18

BLIND PERSONS

DEFINITION OF BLINDNESS

To qualify, blindness shall be defined to mean total and permanent loss of sight in both eyes or the reduction to 1/10 or less of normal vision with glasses - statement of physician or - Conn. State Department for Blind (Gen. Statutes Sec. 12-92).

TO QUALIFY

- (1) Must be a resident of State.
- (2) Must be a resident and owner of property on assessment date.
- (3) Must furnish proof to Assessor. (Annual proof not required)
- (4) Entitled to \$3,000 exemption; lacking such amount in own name, balance or whole ~~exemption~~ may be applied to property in spouse's name.
- (5) Any person unable to furnish proof as required by statutes, may, when he attains such evidence satisfactory to Assessors, make application to the Collector of Taxes within one year after he obtains such evidence for abatement in case tax has been paid in whole or part. Such abatement or refund may be granted retroactively to include the assessment day next succeeding the date at which such person was entitled to the exemption,

BUT

in no case shall abatement or refund be made for a period greater than one year. General Statutes Sec. 12-21.

VETERANS DISABLED BY PARAPILEGIA, HEMIPLEGIA, ETC., PROVIDES:

An exemption of ten thousand (10,000) dollars of assessed valuation, in addition to any other exemption of such person's real or personal property allowed by law, or lacking such amount of property in his name, so much of the property belonging to, or held in trust for, his wife who is domiciled with him.

TO APPLY TO

dwelling house and the lot whereupon the same is erected and occupied by veteran as domicile.

OR

a property greater than a single family dwelling

BUT

the Assessor shall apportion that percentage of the total assessment (land and building) occupied by the veteran and apply the exemption thereto

OR

that portion of the total property occupied by the veteran bears to the entire building.

TO QUALIFY

A veteran to qualify for above exemption.....

- (a) Must have served in time of war.
- (b) Must prove his right to such exemption in accordance with provisions of Sec. 1061d (disability rating, etc.) 1955 Supp.
- (c) Must be a citizen and resident of this State and property occupied as domicile.
- (d) Must be declared by U. S. Veterans' Administration or its successor to have a service connected disability.

FROM and RESULTING IN

PARAPILEGIA

Osteochrondritis - permanent loss of the use of both legs or paralysis of both legs and lower part of body.

HEMIPILEGIA

permanent paralysis of one leg and one arm, or either side of the body resulting from injury to the spinal cord - skeletal structure or brain or from disease of the spinal cord.

TOTAL BLINDNESS

General Statutes Sec. 12-92.

AMPUTATION

both arms, both legs, both hands or both feet, or combination of a hand and a foot.

ABOVE DISABILITIES

must be sustained through enemy action

OR

resulting from accident occurring or disease contracted in such active service.

EXCEPTIONS

Nothing in this Act shall be intended to include paraplegia, hemiplegia, resulting from locomotor ataxia

OR

other forms of syphilis of the central nervous system

OR

from chronic alcoholism

OR

from any other form of disease resulting from the veteran's own misconduct which may produce signs and symptoms similar to those resulting from paraplegia, hemiplegia, osteochondritis.

No taxpayer shall be allowed more than one exemption under this Act.

WIDOW

Sec. 12-21b

The widow of above qualified veteran who at the time of his death was entitled to and had the exemption under this Act shall be entitled to the same exemption for the time.....

- (1) During her widowhood
- (2) A resident of the State
- (3) Legal owner of the property
- (4) Actually occupies a dwelling house and premises intended to be exempt hereunder

EXEMPTIONS WHERE APPLIED NON-RESIDENT AFFIDAVITS

1. Exemptions of veterans, blind persons, wives or any person legally qualified for same

SHALL

2. First be made in the town wherever the person entitled to same resides.

AND

3. Any person asking such exemption in a non-resident town

SHALL

4. Annually make oath before or forward his affidavit to the Assessor of such town deposing that such exemption if allowed

WILL

5. Not together with any exemption which may have been granted

EXCEED

6. The total amount of exemption allowed to the qualified person under the statutes.

NOTE

Such affidavit shall be filed with the Assessor prior to the completion of his duties

EXCEPT

That in any case in which the affidavit cannot be filed in sufficient time to have it acted upon by Assessors, it may be filed with Board of Tax Review prior to completion of their duties.

The proof of eligibility to be provided is a certified copy of the proof filed in town of residence.

(In Hartford, we require that the affidavit be completed and signed by the Assessor in town of residence.)

NOTES ON ASSESSMENTS

1. The Attorney General has ruled that payments made by the United States or Bureau of War Risk Insurance or its related form in World War II, U. S. Government Life and National Service Insurance constitute an annuity within the meaning of the term as used herein. (Opinion Dated December 26, 1946.)
2. Legislation provides that persons otherwise entitled thereto must be residents on the assessment day in each year when the exemption is granted.
3. RESIDENCE:

This word, when used in the exemption status, means the place of domicile. Domicile means home or permanent place of abode as distinguished from temporary residence. A person has but one domicile at any one time. He may have several temporary homes. Normally a wife's domicile is the same as that of her husband. State Supreme Court has ruled that a person otherwise eligible for exemption was not disqualified for the same merely because he or she served while residing in a state other than Connecticut. Where they served or where domiciled while serving in the Armed Forces is

1. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

SHALL

2. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

WILL

3. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

EXCEPT

4. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

NOTE

5. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

EXCEPT

6. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

7. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

8. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

NOTES ON ASSESSMENT

9. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

10. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

11. The assessor, asking such exemption in a non-resident town

immaterial. They must, however, reside (as stated in the foregoing definition of residence) in this state on assessment day. (Walsh vs. Jenks, 135 Conn. 1949.)

U. S. Supreme Court has declared personal property of military personnel exempt from taxation in a state other than the state of domicile. (Dameron vs. Brodheads, United States Supreme Court, April 6, 1953.)

AND

they have flatly decided that the purpose of the Soldiers', Sailors' Civil Relief Act of 1940 was to immunize military personnel from the tax laws other than the state of domicile.

OWNERSHIP OF PROPERTY

LIFE ESTATES

Answer depends on whether or not he received it by gift or devise (inheritance)

- (1) If he received it by paying a consideration, veteran is in the same position as tenant. (Property should be assessed to remainderman and not the veteran.) No exemption can be applied.
- (2) If life estate came to veteran by gift or devise (inheritance, not consideration) and he is in possession, then the Assessor should assess the life tenant (veteran), in which case the exemption may be applied to the veteran's tax obligation.

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PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES

By

Rosaline Levenson
Research Assistant
Institute of Public Service
The University of Connecticut

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

1. Personnel Function in the Municipalities

A. Size of Municipal Personnel Staffs

Personnel administration in the towns and cities of Connecticut, as in other states, is essentially administration of small staffs of employees. There are no cities in Connecticut with a population over 185,000, and only three whose population exceeds 150,000.¹ Of the total 169 towns and cities in the state, just 27 are above 20,000; 58 are between 5,000 and 20,000, while 84--one-half of the total number--have populations under 5,000. Moreover, besides having a small number of inhabitants, half of Connecticut's municipalities are rural and provide only the barest of governmental services. Even the oldest

¹Population figures are based upon estimates by the Connecticut State Department of Health as of July 1, 1960.

forms of municipal services--police and fire protection--are available in many communities as part of the state system, in the case of police, or on volunteer basis, for firemen.

Personnel staffs, other than those in the 27 towns and cities above 20,000 population, consequently tend to be small. The largest number of employees, as to be expected, is found in New Haven, Hartford, and Bridgeport--the three largest cities in the state.² In 1959, New Haven had 2,200 employees; Hartford, 2,115; and Bridgeport, 1,889. In other municipalities over 20,000, the number of employees ranged in 1959 from 80 in Ansonia to 824 in New Britain. For towns between 5,000 and 20,000, the number of employees in 1959 was from 5 to 121. (See Table 1.)

Yet even small governmental jurisdictions have need for progressive personnel procedures which permit the selection and promotion of employees on the basis of merit and fitness, offer some measure of tenure or job security to competent employees, systematize leave schedules, and provide for other essential elements of sound personnel administration.

This article proposes to report briefly on what the major Connecticut towns and cities are doing in the way of providing for effective personnel administration. The personnel practices of 52 out of Connecticut's 85 municipalities over 5,000 population were studied for this report,³ and the findings are as follows.

²Figures on the total number of public employees in Connecticut's towns and cities are of fulltime employees, exclusive of boards of education personnel or elected officials. Source for these figures is Rosaline Levenson, Municipal Employee Benefits in Connecticut (Storrs: Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, October, 1959).

³Information on these 52 municipalities was extracted from questionnaires sent to all Connecticut towns and cities over 5,000 population by the Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, in April, 1960, for a personnel manual now in preparation by the Institute. Because no information regarding its personnel staff is available about Waterbury, it is the only large city in Connecticut not included in this study. However, a merit system ordinance, based on a model prepared by the National Civil Service League, is now under consideration in Waterbury. The ordinance provides, among other things, for the appointment of a personnel director, the establishment of a classification and pay plan, and the use of competitive examinations to fill position vacancies.

b. Personnel Commissions or Boards

Of the 52 towns and cities studied, ten have independent personnel commissions or boards. They are Bridgeport, Hartford, Milford, New Britain, Norwalk, Norwich, Stamford, Torrington, Wallingford, and West Hartford. Not all of these nine municipalities have the largest number of public employees in the state. Wallingford, for example, has only 127 employees--fewer than almost all other towns above 20,000 population.

In 28 of the other 52 municipalities, personnel policy is set by the chief executive or an administrative department, in contrast to 13 towns where personnel policy is the prerogative of the council. In those communities where policy is handled by the chief executive, 22 towns rely upon the selectmen; three towns, an administrative office; two towns, the manager; and one town, the mayor. In New Haven and Newington, for example, it is the board of finance which determines personnel policy; in Greenwich, the board of estimate and taxation. Meriden is the only municipality where policy is set by the mayor, although some action also requires the approval of the council. The two communities where the town manager determines policy are New London and Plainville.

c. Personnel Directors

Only nine of the 52 municipalities studied also have personnel directors, although the nine are not the same towns which have independent personnel commissions or boards. In Milford, for instance, the finance department handles personnel duties; in Wallingford, the department heads; and in Torrington, the Civil Service Commission itself. However, personnel directors are found in the remaining six towns which have independent personnel commissions or boards.

Two towns where personnel policy is set by administrative departments do, however, have personnel directors; they are Greenwich and New Haven. In Trumbull, on the other hand, personnel policy is determined by the first selectman, but personnel duties are handled by a personnel director.

In other towns, personnel duties are primarily the function of an

administrative department, such as comptroller or department heads (10 towns), manager (10 towns), or selectmen (eight towns). In only one place--Derby--does the town legislative body (called the board of aldermen) handle personnel duties.

The record of the majority of Connecticut's towns and cities over 5,000 population thus shows they follow the long-accepted principle in public administration that the personnel function belongs with the chief executive. Lacking among all but a few of the municipalities, however, are the practices of (1) establishing a separate agency--either commission, board, or individual--to determine personnel policy, and (2) placing personnel duties under the direction of one trained individual.

2. Personnel Procedures

a. Classification and Pay Plan

Effective personnel operations involve more than the recruitment and supervision of employees. If education and welfare services, the regulation of business, and police and fire protection are to be economically and efficiently provided by growing communities, a competent and trained working force is imperative. Although highly-specialized knowledge and skills are required for few jobs in municipalities, a well-planned personnel program is essential even for the smallest towns. Such basic elements of a sound personnel program as position classification and pay plans, selection and promotion on the basis of merit, and formal leave schedules help facilitate the job of administration in town or city halls. The argument often advanced that personnel programs are not necessary in small municipalities is not borne out by the practices in Connecticut. While such personnel programs are found more frequently in the larger cities, there nevertheless are large municipalities which do not have them, but small areas which do.

Of the 52 municipalities studied, 28 have classification systems; 32 have pay plans. However, in three towns the classification systems or pay plans cover

only police, firemen, janitors, or employees in the engineering department. Table 1 shows that many municipalities which lack classification systems and pay plans nevertheless have large numbers of employees. Two towns, Plainville, with 39 employees, and Newtown, with 33, are presently in the process of establishing a classification system and pay plan.

b. Competitive Examinations

Competitive examinations to fill vacancies are given by 20 municipalities; 13 other towns hold competitive examinations in certain cases, particularly for policemen. Twenty-four use the personnel examination facilities provided by the state of Connecticut, some only for specific jobs such as police and firemen. For promotions, competitive examinations are given by 18 towns, while five others hold such examinations for police and firemen or in other special cases.

c. Permanent Status

Only in 25 towns and cities of varying sizes are general town employees given permanent status or tenure, usually after a six-months probationary period. In addition, Meriden, Putnam, and Simsbury grant permanent status in special cases, while Hamden is in the process of developing such rules.

d. Appeal of Grievances

Procedures have been established in 30 towns and cities to handle the appeal of employee grievances, such as disciplinary action taken against the employee or dismissal from service. These 30 municipalities include such small communities as Wilton, Windsor, Farmington, Bloomfield, Wethersfield, and New Canaan. Greenwich does not have such procedure established, although any disciplinary action or dismissal is subject to review by a higher appointing authority. In Norwalk, East Haven, and Simsbury, procedure for appeal of grievances is established only for police and firemen.

e. Political Activities Permitted

Political neutrality of public employees--the principle that government employees should not be required to support the candidacy or contribute to the campaign funds of politicians--is not as strongly endorsed in municipalities as at the state or federal level. Seven Connecticut towns permit their municipal employees no political activities whatsoever: East Hartford, West Hartford, Stamford, Torrington, Bloomfield, Windsor, and New Haven. (See Table 2.) In Bridgeport and Trumbull, municipal employees may belong to political clubs or organizations and even run for political office; however, they can not take part in political campaigns. The reverse is true in 10 towns, where employees are permitted to belong to political clubs or organizations and to take part in political campaigns but may not become candidates themselves.

Nine towns and cities permit their employees only one political activity: to belong to political clubs; forbidden are such activities as taking part in political campaigns or seeking political office. In 16 towns, however, complete political participation is open to employees: they may belong to any clubs or organizations, take part in campaigns, and seek office. In one of the 16 towns--Meriden--these political activities are not "encouraged" for police, firemen, or teachers, while in Ansonia they are forbidden to police.

Four towns--Killingly, Southington, Newtown, and South Windsor--have not adopted any formal policy regarding political participation of their employees.

Political Activities

It is the policy of the Government to permit its employees to engage in political activities outside of their official duties. This policy is based on the principle of freedom of expression, which is a fundamental right of all citizens. However, there are certain restrictions on political activities that employees may engage in while on duty or in the use of Government resources. For example, employees are prohibited from using Government funds for political purposes or from engaging in political activities that may conflict with their official duties. The reverse is true in the home, where employees are permitted to belong to political clubs or organizations and to take part in political campaigns but may not become candidates themselves.

The laws and rules permit their employees to engage in political activities outside of their official duties. However, there are certain restrictions on political activities that employees may engage in while on duty or in the use of Government resources. For example, employees are prohibited from using Government funds for political purposes or from engaging in political activities that may conflict with their official duties. In the home, however, employees are permitted to belong to political clubs or organizations and to take part in political campaigns but may not become candidates themselves. This policy is based on the principle of freedom of expression, which is a fundamental right of all citizens. However, there are certain restrictions on political activities that employees may engage in while on duty or in the use of Government resources. For example, employees are prohibited from using Government funds for political purposes or from engaging in political activities that may conflict with their official duties. In the home, however, employees are permitted to belong to political clubs or organizations and to take part in political campaigns but may not become candidates themselves.

3. Fringe Benefits⁴

a. Municipal Fringe Benefit Package

The protective type of fringe benefits--retirement, medical insurance, leave provisions and the like--are made available to public employees by most Connecticut towns and cities. The municipalities also are liberal in the number of paid holidays granted. Few towns, however, give other benefits, such as incentive awards or further longevity pay increases after the maximum in the established salary range has been reached.

b. Retirement

Retirement, generally considered the most vital of all fringe benefits, is available in all 52 Connecticut towns studied except Killingly, Mansfield, Putnam, Watertown, Montville, East Lyme, Newtown, Wilton, and South Windsor.

The state permits three types of retirement systems to be established by municipal governments: (a) locally-sponsored and controlled; (b) the Connecticut Municipal Employees' Retirement Fund, and (c) the federal Old Age and Survivors' Insurance System (Social Security). Municipal employees other than police and firemen may be placed under one or a combination of these systems. In most towns, police and firemen have their own retirement systems, separate from other employees. They have not as yet been brought under Social Security.

c. Medical and Life Insurance

Like retirement, group medical insurance also is widely granted by Connecticut municipalities. The only towns to lack group medical insurance for

⁴Data for this section is from Rosaline Levenson, Municipal Employee Benefits in Connecticut (Storrs: Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, October, 1959), which treats the subject more fully. For a comparison of municipal fringe benefits with benefit programs of other governmental jurisdictions and selected private industries in Connecticut, see Employee Benefits in Connecticut Public and Private Employment: A Comparison, published by the Institute of Public Service in November, 1959.

employees are Westport, Mansfield, Simsbury, Portland, and Coventry. Group life insurance, on the other hand, is not as widely available. As Table 3 shows, only 27 of the 52 towns and cities make it available to employees.

d. Leave Provisions

Leave provisions of Connecticut municipalities tend to follow the pattern of private industry: two weeks vacation after one year of employment. However, it is mainly the larger cities which give additional vacations for those with longer service. Very few towns permit employees to accumulate vacation time. Almost all, however, grant emergency leaves with pay for illness, death, or funeral in the employee's immediate family.

Paid sick leave is formally established in 28 of the 52 towns. Of those over 50,000 in population, only West Hartford lacks a formal sick leave policy; of towns between 20,000 and 50,000, Ansonia, Wallingford, and East Hartford. Under 10,000 population, almost as many towns have such policy as those which do not.

e. Other Fringe Benefits

Connecticut towns and cities generally are liberal in the number of paid holidays granted. More than half of the 52 towns surveyed--a total of 31--observe 11 holidays, although police, firemen, and sometimes public works employees are granted fewer holidays. The 11 holidays granted by these 31 towns are New Year's Day, Christmas, Thanksgiving, Veterans Day, Labor Day, Fourth of July, Memorial Day, Washington's Birthday, Lincoln's Birthday, Columbus Day, and Good Friday. In addition to these holidays, three other towns--Glastonbury, East Haven, and Montville--also permit their employees time off on election day.

The municipalities also are liberal in the number of working hours for general town employees. Most municipal employees, especially office personnel, work 7 hours a day or 35 hours per week.

Other than their generous leave schedules and comparatively short work week, Connecticut municipalities offer few other fringe benefits. Of the towns studied, unemployment insurance coverage is available only in Meriden, New Britain, and Farmington, under provisions of the Connecticut Unemployment Compensation Law. In Hartford alone there is a suggestion awards program. Longevity pay increases after the maximum in the established salary range has been reached are offered only by Hartford, Norwalk, East Hartford, and Newington.

4. In Conclusion

This cursory survey of personnel practices in Connecticut towns and cities over 5,000 population indicates that many of the municipalities have adopted essential elements of personnel programs. These programs are being established by small governmental jurisdictions as well as the large, as evidenced by the well-planned personnel arrangements in Farmington, Bloomfield, New Canaan, and other towns where the number of public employees is relatively small. As Connecticut communities continue to grow, a necessary corollary of the accompanying expansion in governmental services may well be the adoption of effective personnel administration by more small and medium-sized municipalities.

Table 1

ADMINISTRATION OF PERSONNEL FUNCTION IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES OVER 5,000 POPULATION^{1/}

Town or City (By Pop. Group)	Total No. ^{2/} of Fulltime Employees	Who Sets Personnel Policy	Who Handles Personnel Duties	Town Has Classifi- cation System	Town Has Pay Plan	Empl. covered in Classification System and/or Pay Plan
<u>Over 50,000</u>						
Bridgeport	1,889	Civ. Ser. Com.	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Greenwich	637	Bd. of Est. & Taxation	Personnel Director	Yes		" " "
Hartford	2,115	Personnel Bd.	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	" " "
Meriden	570	Mayor ^{3/}	Comptroller	No	Yes	Police, firemen
New Britain	824	Civ. Ser. Com.	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
New Haven	2,200	Bd. of Finance	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	" " "
Norwalk	476	Pers. Committee	Asst. to Comptroller	Yes	Yes	" " "
Stamford	No Reply	Pers. Committee	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	" " "
West Hartford	450	Personnel Bd.	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	" " "
<u>20,000-50,000</u>						
Ansonia	80	Aldermen	Mayor, dept. heads	No	No	Gen. town empl.
Bristol	378	Council	Comptroller	No	Yes	
East Hartford	225	No Reply	No Reply	No	No	
Fairfield	300	1st Select. ^{4/}	Accounting Office	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Hamden	300	Selectmen	Selectmen	No ^{5/}	Yes	Police, firemen, Engineering dept.
Manchester	220	Bd. of Dir. ^{6/}	Manager	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Middletown	260	Council	Comptroller	Yes	Yes	" " "
Milford	350	Civ. Ser. Com.	Finance Dept.	Yes	Yes	" " "
New London	305	Manager	Manager	Yes	Yes	" " "
Norwich	478	Per. & Pen. Bd.	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	" " "
Stratford	298	Council	Manager ^{7/}	Yes	Yes	" " "
Torrington	No Reply	Civ. Ser. Com.	Civ. Ser. Com.	Yes	Yes	" " "
Wallingford	127	Personnel Bd.	Department Heads	Yes	Yes	" " "

Table 1 (continued)

Town or City (By Pop. Group)	Total No. of Fulltime Employees	Who Sets Personnel Policy	Who Handles Personnel Duties	Town Has Classifi- cation System	Town Has Pay Plan	Empl. covered in Classification System and/or Pay Plan
<u>10,000-20,000</u>						
Bloomfield	42	Council	Manager	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Darien	73	Selectmen	No Reply	No	Yes	" " "
Derby	57	Aldermen	Aldermen	Yes	Yes	Police, janitors
East Haven	64	Selectmen	First Selectman	No	No	
Glastonbury	40	Council	Manager	No	No	
Killingly	27	No Reply	Manager	No	No	
Mansfield	12	Selectmen	No Reply	Yes	No	
New Canaan	93	Selectmen	Selectmen	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Newington	51	Bd. of Finance	No Reply	Yes	Yes	" " "
Plainville	39	Manager	Manager	9/	9/	" " "
Putnam	32	Council	No Reply	No	No	
Southington	57	Selectmen	No Reply	No	No	
Trumbull	82	1st Selectman	Personnel Director	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Watertown	38	1st Selectman	No Reply	No	No	
Westport	121	Selectmen	Controller	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Wethersfield	75	Council	Manager	Yes	Yes	" " "
Windham	24	1st Selectman	No Reply	No	No	" " "
Windsor	53	Council	Manager	Yes	Yes	" " "
<u>5,000-10,000</u>						
Coventry	18	Selectmen	No Reply	No	No	Gen. town empl.
Cromwell	13	Selectmen	No Reply	Yes	Yes	
East Lyme	15	Selectmen	First Selectman	No	No	
Farmington	31	Council	Manager	No	Yes	Gen. town empl.
Montville	10	1st Selectman	No Reply	No	No	
Newtown	33	Selectmen	First Selectman	10/	10/	
Plymouth	21	Selectmen	First Selectman	No	No	
Portland	No Reply	Selectmen	No Reply	No	No	
Rocky Hill	5	Selectmen	No Reply	No	No	
Simsbury	26	Selectmen	Selectmen	Yes	Yes	Gen. town empl.
South Windsor	15	Selectmen	Department Heads	No	No	
Wilton	36	Selectmen	Selectmen	No	No	

1/ Source: extracted from questionnaires sent to all Connecticut towns and cities over 5,000 population by the Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, April, 1960, for a personnel manual now in preparation by the Institute. The towns and cities in the above table are a partial list of those to be studied for the personnel manual.

2/ Exclusive of elected officials and boards of education personnel. Source: Rosaline Levenson, Municipal Employee Benefits in Connecticut. Storrs: Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, October, 1959.

3/ Some action requires approval of the Council. In April, 1959, a committee was appointed in Meriden to make a study of the merit system as it would apply to municipal employees.

4/ The board of selectmen of Fairfield is presently organizing a citizens' personnel committee to review personnel policies of the town and to make recommendations on the feasibility of establishing a personnel department headed by a qualified personnel administrator. At present, the first selectman and the town fiscal officer serve as personnel board for the purpose of reviewing classifications, pay scales, personnel rules, etc. Recommendations of the first selectman and the fiscal officer are submitted to the board of finance for action.

5/ Each department furnished the Civil Service Commission with job descriptions, educational requirements, and responsibilities.

6/ The Board of Directors is the legislative body of Manchester.

7/ A Civil Service Commission, composed of five citizens and a personnel director to be named by the commission, are provided for in a proposed charter now being prepared by the Stratford Charter Revision Committee. At present, all town employees are appointed by the town manager after taking examinations conducted by the State Personnel Department. There are no civil service regulations for the town. The proposed Civil Service Commission would include a town employee appointed by the mayor after election by the town employees. A personnel director would be appointed by the Commission.

8/ Exclusive of police and firemen.

9/ In preparation for general town employees, as required by charter.

10/ Newtown is in the process of establishing a rudimentary classification system. At present the town has a schedule only of hourly wage rates for certain jobs in the highway department.

Table 2

PERSONNEL PROCEDURES IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES OVER 5,000 POPULATION^{1/}

Legend: 1 - May belong to political clubs or organizations
 2 - May take part in political campaigns
 3 - May run for political office

NR - No Reply
 NP - No policy

Town or City (By Pop. Group)	Competitive Examinations Held to Fill Vacancies	State Personnel Examination Facilities Used	Competitive Examinations Held for Promotions	Employees Are Given Permanent Status	Appeal of Grievances Is Available	Political Activities Permitted Employees
<u>Over 50,000</u>						
Bridgeport	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1,3
Greenwich	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No ^{2/}	1,2
Hartford	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1
Meriden	No	No	No	No ^{3/}	Yes	1,2,3, ^{4/}
New Britain	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1
New Haven	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	None
Norwalk	No ^{5/}	On occasion	No	Yes	No ^{5/}	1,2,3
Stamford	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	None
West Hartford	Yes	On occasion	Yes	Yes	Yes	None
<u>20,000-50,000</u>						
Ansonia	No	No	No	No	NP	1,2,3 ^{6/}
Bristol	No	For police, firemen	No ^{5/}	No	Yes	1,2,3
East Hartford	No	No	No	NR	Yes	None
Fairfield	No ^{3/}	On occasion	No	No	Yes	1
Hamden	Yes	On occasion	Yes	7/	Yes	1
Manchester	Yes	Yes ^{8/}	Yes	Yes	Yes	1,2,3
Middletown	No	No	No	NR	Yes	1
Milford	No	No	No	No	Yes	1,2
New London	No ^{3/}	On occasion	No	Yes	Yes	1,2 ^{10/}
Norwich	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1,2
Stratford	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	None
Torrington	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	1
Wallingford	No ^{5/}	Yes	No	NR	NP	

Table 2 (continued)

Town or City (By Pop. Group)	Competitive Examinations Held to Fill Vacancies	State Personnel Examination Facilities Used	Competitive Examinations Held for Promotions	Employees Are Given Permanent Status	Appeal of Grievances Is Available	Political Activities Permitted Employees
<u>10,000-20,000</u>						
Bloomfield	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	None
Darien	No ^{2/}	No	No	Yes	Yes	1,2,3
Derby	No ^{2/}	Yes	No ^{3/}	No	Yes	1,2,3
East Haven	No ^{2/}	No	No	NR	No ^{5/}	1,2,3
Glastonbury	Yes	On occasion	Yes	Yes	Yes	1,2
Killingly	No	No	No	No	NP	NP
Mansfield	No	No	No	No	NR	NR
New Canaan	No	No	No ^{6/}	Yes	Yes	1,2,3
Newington	No ^{3/}	On occasion	No ^{6/}	Yes	No	1
Plainville	Yes	On occasion ^{11/}	Yes	Yes	NR	NR
Putnam	No ^{6/}	Yes	No ^{6/}	No ^{5/}	Yes	1,2
Southington	No	No	No	No	NP	NP
Trumbull	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	1,3
Watertown	No	No	No	No	NR	NR
Westport	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	1,2,3
Wethersfield	Yes	On occasion	Yes	Yes	Yes	1,2
Windham	No	No	No	No	NR	1
Windsor	Yes	On occasion	Yes	Yes	Yes	None
<u>5,000-10,000</u>						
Coventry	No ^{3/}	No	No	No	No	1,2,3
Cromwell	No ^{2/}	On occasion	No	Yes	NR	1,2
East Lyme	No	No	No	No	No	1,2,3
Farmington	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	1,2
Montville	No	No	No	No	NR	NR
Newtown	No ^{3/}	Yes	No	No	NP	NP
Plymouth	No	No	No	NR	NR	1,2,3
Portland	No	No	No	NR	NR	1,2,3
Rocky Hill	No	No	No	No	NR	1,2,3

Table 2 (continued)

Town or City (By Pop. Group)	Competitive Examinations Held to Fill Vacancies	State Personnel Examination Facilities Used	Competitive Examinations Held for Promotions	Employees Are Given Permanent Status	Appeal of Grievances Is Available	Political Activities Permitted Employees
5,000-10,000						
Simsbury	No ^{3/}	On occasion	No ^{6/}	No ^{6/}	No ^{6/}	1,2,3
South Windsor	No	No	No	NP	NP	NP
Wilton	No	No	No	No	Yes	1,2

1/ Source: extracted from questionnaires sent to all Connecticut towns and cities over 5,000 population by the Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, April, 1960, for a personnel manual now in preparation by the Institute. The towns and cities in the above table are a partial list of those to be studied for the personnel manual.

2/ However, disciplinary action or dismissal is subject to review by higher appointing authority.

2/ Except in a few cases.

4/ Not encouraged for police, firemen, or teachers.

5/ Except for police and firemen.

6/ Except police.

7/ Rules regulating the granting of permanent status are now being developed.

8/ Manchester also uses the assistance of the Connecticut Employment Service.

2/ Not as officer or member of a committee.

10/ Employees may not contribute to campaign funds.

11/ In addition to other recognized sources, such as the Public Personnel Association.

Table 3

FRINGE BENEFITS OFFERED IN CONNECTICUT TOWNS AND CITIES OVER 5,000 POPULATION^{1/}

Town or City	No. of Holidays Granted ^{2/}	Longevity Pay Granted	Has Paid Sick Leave Policy	Has Group Medical Insurance	Has Group Life Insurance	Has Retirement System
<u>Over 50,000</u>						
Bridgeport	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Greenwich	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hartford	9	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Meriden	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
New Britain	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
New Haven	10	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Norwalk	10	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Stamford	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
West Hartford	11	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
<u>20,000-50,000</u>						
Ansonia	11	No	No ^{2/}	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bristol	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
East Hartford	11	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Fairfield	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hamden	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Manchester	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Middletown	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Milford	11	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
New London	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Norwich	11	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Stratford	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Torrington	9	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Wallingford	11	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
<u>10,000-20,000</u>						
Bloomfield	11	No	Yes ^{3/}	Yes	Yes	Yes
Darien	11	No	No ^{3/}	Yes	No	Yes
Derby	7	No	Yes ^{5/}	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 3 (continued)

Town or City	No. of Holidays Granted ^{2/}	Longevity Pay Granted	Has Paid Sick Leave	Has Group Medical Insurance	Has Group Life Insurance	Has Retirement System
<u>10,000-20,000</u>						
East Haven	12 ^{6/}	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Glastonbury	12 ^{6/}	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Killingly	9	No	No	Yes	No	No
Mansfield	10	No	No	No	No	No
New Canaan	11	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Newington	10	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Plainville	11	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Putnam	6	No	No	Yes	No	No
Southington	9	No	No ^{7/}	Yes	Yes	Yes
Trumbull	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Watertown	7	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Westport	11	No	Yes	No	No	Yes ^{5/}
Wethersfield	11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Windham	11	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Windsor	10	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
<u>5,000-10,000</u>						
Coventry	7	No	No ^{8/}	No	No	Yes
Cromwell	11	No	No ^{8/}	Yes	No	Yes
East Lyme	9	No	No	Yes	No	No
Farmington	10	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Montville	12 ^{6/}	No	No	Yes	No	No
Newtown	11	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Plymouth	11	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Portland	11	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Rocky Hill	6	No	No ^{9/}	No	No	Yes
Simsbury	9	No	No ^{9/}	Yes	Yes	Yes
South Windsor	5	No	No	No	No	No
Wilton	11	No	No	Yes	No	No

1/ Source: Rosaline Levenson, Municipal Employee Benefits in Connecticut. (Storrs: Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, October, 1959). A comprehensive treatment of the above fringe benefits, as well as many others, for 112 of Connecticut's 169 towns and cities may be found in Municipal Employee Benefits in Connecticut. Another Institute study, Employee Benefits in Connecticut Public and Private Employment: A Comparison, published in November, 1959, compares these fringe benefits with those offered by the state and federal governments and 85 selected private industries in Connecticut.

2/ Office personnel only. Police, firemen, and at times employees of the highway department generally receive fewer holidays.

3/ Except for police.

4/ Now being determined.

5/ Salaried employees only.

6/ Includes election day.

7/ Except for firemen.

8/ Except for hourly employees.

2/ Except for the highway department. Other employees are considered individually.

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THE CONNECTICUT LEGISLATURE--A COMPARISON WITH OTHER STATES

By

Patricia Stuart
Research Assistant

The 1961 session of the Connecticut General Assembly will have fifteen more members than its predecessors. One of its major concerns will be whether and how to redistrict the state senate. If no action is taken on redistricting the senate at this session, under the state constitution the districts must remain as they are until 1971. The General Assembly will probably, as it has in the past, have before it constitutional amendments purporting to change representation and provide for additional sessions. The purpose of this paper is to compare the Connecticut General Assembly with the legislatures of the 49 other states as to size, representation, and type and length of sessions. Data used for these comparisons are taken from The Book of the States, 1960-61, published by the Council of State Governments. Tables I and II in the Appendix were compiled from this source and include the data on which the text is based.

Additional copies of this publication are available on request from the Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut, Storrs.

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Size of Legislatures

The Connecticut General Assembly is the second largest state legislative body in the United States. Its total of 330 members is second only to New Hampshire's 424 members. The Connecticut House of Representatives has 294 members, and the State Senate has 36 members. The Connecticut house gained 15 members as the result of the 1960 federal census, and it will continue to increase as more towns exceed 5,000 population.¹ Oklahoma is the only other state in the which the size of the state house of representatives varies by population.

The four largest legislatures are in the New England states. In addition to New Hampshire and Connecticut, Massachusetts' legislature ranks third in size in the nation with 280 members and Vermont is fourth with 276 members. The smallest legislature is Nebraska's unicameral body of 43 members. Delaware has the smallest bicameral legislature with 52 members and Alaska's 60 member body is next smallest.

State Senate. The size of the 50 state senates varies in membership from 17 in Nevada and Delaware to 67 in Minnesota. The average size is 40. Nineteen states have state senates between 30 and 39 in number.

House of Representatives. New Hampshire's House of Representatives is also the nation's largest with 400 members; Delaware's 35 members is the smallest. Eighteen states have houses with less than 100 members. In six states, Connecticut, Georgia, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania and Vermont, the house has more than 200 members. Eighteen states have houses with less than 100 members.

Rank by Population and Size of Legislature. In Table II the states are ranked, 1 through 50, by population and also by the total size of their

¹Actually in 1960, 24 towns exceeded 5,000 in population for the first time. However, nine of these already had two representatives in the house.

legislature. In 19 states there is a relatively close relationship between these two figures.

Representation in the Connecticut General Assembly

House of Representatives. In Connecticut every town over 5,000 population is entitled to two representatives in the house of representatives; and all other towns to the representation they had in 1874. This means that in the 1961 General Assembly 125 towns will have two representatives; 44 will have one representative. Of the 77 towns under 5,000 according to the final 1960 census figures, 33 have two representatives. The following table shows representation in the 1961 house by population groups:

Membership in 1961 Connecticut House of Representatives

<u>Towns and Cities</u>	<u>Number of Towns & Cities</u>	<u>Number of Representa- tives</u>	<u>% of Total Representa- tives</u>	<u>Popu- lation</u>	<u>% of Popu- lation</u>
Under 5,000	77	110	37.1%	186,240	7%
5,000 to 10,000	33	66	22.4	233,396	9
10,000 to 25,000	33	66	22.4	511,601	20
25,000 to 100,000	22	44	15.0	1,025,893	40
Over 100,000	4	8	2.7	578,104	23
Total	169	294	99.6%	2,535,241	99%

State Senate. The Connecticut state senate has 36 members elected from districts created by the General Assembly. In dividing the state into senatorial districts, the General Assembly must abide by several constitutional restrictions. There can be no more than 36 districts, each district elects one senator, and each county must elect at least one senator. No county or part of a county may be joined to the whole or part of another county to form a district. No town may be divided except to form more than one district wholly within a town. Districts must be as nearly equal in population as

possible. Districts may be changed only in the session of the General Assembly "next after the completion of the census of the United States" (Conn. Constitution, Art. III, sec. 5). The Supreme Court of Errors held unconstitutional a redistricting act passed in 1953 session of the General Assembly on the ground that this was not the session next following completion of the census.

The state senate has not been redistricted since 1903. At that time there were only 35 districts² and the state's population was only 908,420. The largest district then had a population of 31,156 and the smallest, 20,362. Today with the state's population 2,535,241, the smallest district (the 31st) has a population of 26,297; the largest (the 25th) has a population of 175,945.

Redistricting the Senate. The 1959 General Assembly established a bipartisan commission to study the problems of redistricting the Senate (Special Act 118). The committee consisted of 12 members, four appointed by the Governor, four by the President Pro Tempore of the Senate, and four by the Speaker of the House. Not more than 2 members appointed by each official were from the same political party. The commission has approved a redistricting plan which it will recommend to the 1961 General Assembly. The proposed districts are listed in the Appendix to this study.

Several criteria for legislative districting are reflected in the table which follows.³ Average district population is an ideal figure obtained by dividing the state's population by the number of districts. The largest and smallest districts as a percentage of the average district indicate the deviation from the ideal as does the ratio of the smallest to the largest district. Variance, average variance, and average percentage variance are measures which are used widely in legislative apportionment studies. Variance indicates the

² The 36th district was created in 1941 when Greenwich was separated from Stamford.

³ Districting and Redistricting the Connecticut Senate--What Has Been and Can Be Done (Hartford: Connecticut Public Expenditure Council, 1960), pp.6-9.

amount by which the population of a district differs either way from the population of the average district. Average variance is the average of all district variances. Average percentage variance is the average variance as a percentage of the average district and indicates the extreme range of inequality among districts. The smallest population able to elect a majority is the total population of the 19 least populous districts as a percentage of the total population of the state.

The following table compares the 1903 redistricting (the last complete redistricting), the proposed 1953 redistricting which was declared unconstitutional, the 1960 population of the present districts, and the proposed 1961 redistricting against these criteria.

<u>State Senatorial Districts</u>					
<u>Year</u>	<u>State Population</u>	<u>No. of Districts</u>	<u>Average District Population</u>	<u>Population of Smallest District</u>	<u>Population of Largest District</u>
1903	908,420	35	25,954	20,362	31,156
1953	2,007,280	36	55,758	40,835	74,293
1960	2,535,241	36	70,423	26,297	175,945
Proposed 1961	2,535,241	36	70,423	50,682	92,713

<u>Year</u>	<u>Smallest as % of Average</u>	<u>Largest as % of Average</u>	<u>Ratio Smallest to Largest</u>	<u>Average % Variance</u>	<u>Smallest % to elect Majority</u>
1903	78.5%	120.0%	1:1.5	10.7%	47.1%
1953	73.2	133.2	1:1.8	8.9	48.3
1960	37.3	249.6	1:6.7	43.9	31.6
Proposed 1961	72.0	131.7	1:1.8	20.8	42.4

(Source of 1903 and 1953 data: Districting and Redistricting the Connecticut Senate, p.7. This table is an extension of the table which appears on page 7 of the Conn. Public Expenditure Council study using the final 1960 population figures for the districts as they exist today and for the proposed 1961 redistricting.)

The 1903, 1953, and proposed 1961 redistrictings reflect about the maximum degree of equality of population which can reasonably be achieved under the state constitution. The Connecticut Public Expenditure Council study indicates a ratio of about one to two between the population of the smallest and largest districts, an average percentage variance of about 10 per cent, and a smallest percentage able to elect a majority equal to about 47 per cent to 48 per cent of the total as being about the best which can presently be accomplished. These criteria also indicate the extreme inequality which exists in the present districts.

Proposals for Constitutional Changes. Aside from the problem of redistricting the senate within the present constitutional framework, proposals have been made from time to time to change the basis of representation in the house and senate. Two proposals to change representation in the house have been advanced--(1) to change to one representative per town and (2) to base representation on a population ratio. The latter suggestion--known as the Lockhard Plan--would give one representative to all towns under 10,000 population, two representatives to towns from 10,000 to 25,000, three representatives to towns from 25,000 to 100,000, and four representatives to cities over 100,000. The following table shows how each of these proposals would distribute seats in the house:

<u>Towns and Cities</u>	<u>% of pop- ula- tion</u>	<u>Present Representation</u>		<u>1 Representa- tive Per Town</u>		<u>Lockhard Plan</u>	
		<u>Number of Represen- tatives</u>	<u>% of Total</u>	<u>Number of Represen- tatives</u>	<u>% of Total</u>	<u>Number of Represen- tatives</u>	<u>% of Total</u>
Under 5,000	7%	110	37.1%	77	45.5%	77	30.0%
5,000 to 10,000	9	66	22.4	33	19.5	33	13.0
10,000 to 25,000	20	66	22.4	33	19.5	66	25.5
25,000 to 100,000	40	44	15.0	22	13.0	66	25.5
Over 100,000	23	8	2.7	4	2.4	16	6.0
Total	99%	294	99.6%	169	99.9%	258	100.0%

Two proposals for constitutional amendments to change the basis of representation in the house of representatives were introduced during the first week of the 1961 session of the General Assembly and after this bulletin was originally reproduced.

One proposed amendment would cut representation in the house to one member per town. The division of representation among population groups under this proposal is shown in the table on the preceding page; it is discussed in the first paragraph on page 7. The other proposal to change house representation would entitle each town to send one representative and one additional representative for each 25,000 inhabitants. Under this plan the 16 towns between 25,000 and 50,000 population would have 2 representatives each; the 4 towns and cities over 50,000 but less than 75,000 population would have 3 representatives each; the 2 cities between 75,000 and 100,000 would have 4 representatives; the 1 city over 100,000 but less than 125,000 would have 5 representatives; and the 3 cities over 150,000 population would have 7 representatives. The division of representation among population groups under this proposed amendment is shown below:

<u>Towns and Cities</u>	<u>Number of Representatives</u>	<u>% of Total</u>
Under 5,000	77	34.8%
5,000 to 10,000	33	14.9
10,000 to 25,000	33	14.9
25,000 to 100,000	52	23.5
Over 100,000	26	11.8
Total	221	99.9%

This proposal would more effectively reduce the size of the house than would the Lockhard Plan and would substantially increase the proportion of representation for the large cities. It would not decrease the percentage of representation of the towns under 5,000 nor increase the percentage going to the 25,000 to 100,000 group as much as would the Lockhard Plan.

Reducing representation to one member per town has received primary consideration because it would effectively reduce the size of the house. In so doing, however, it would increase the share of representation given to the least populous towns in the state. This objection is overcome in some measure when the house and senate are considered together. Proponents of this plan argue that with representation in the state senate based on population, it is proper to have representation in the house on an absolute basis. The Lockhard Plan would equalize to some extent the disparity between population and representation, especially for the 22 towns in the 25,000 to 100,000 population group; however, it would not accomplish the other goal of reducing the total number of representatives to any effective degree.

Suggestions have been made from time-to-time to increase the size of the state senate and change the method of electing senators, but most recent suggestions have centered around constitutional amendments to eliminate reference to counties in creating senatorial districts and to include a requirement for mandatory redistricting. Two types of mandatory redistricting are in use in other states: (1) Requirement that the legislature redistrict periodically with a penalty attached to failure to act and (2) Transfer of redistricting entirely to a non-legislative agency. The Connecticut Public Expenditure Council study of senate redistricting points out that the General Assembly has, with one major exception, effectively redistricted the state senate only when compelled to do so by the Constitution. Three districtings have achieved a high degree of equality; of these two were mandatory. "The invalidated 1953 redistricting was the only nonmandatory redistricting to effect a degree of equality comparable to, or better than, that of the 1829 and 1903 acts." The Council further points out that, in the absence of redistricting, substantial deterioration in equality of districts has generally occurred within twenty years following effective districting. At no time have natural

growth and population shifts served to keep the balance of equality.⁴

Legislative Sessions

The Connecticut General Assembly meets for regular sessions biennially in odd-numbered years. These sessions convene on the Wednesday after the first Monday in January and must adjourn by the Wednesday after the first Monday in June. The Governor may call special sessions on special emergencies and the General Assembly may meet any time it deems it necessary. Since 1954 the Governor has called four special sessions to deal with special problems.

Types of sessions. In recent years constitutional amendments have been introduced which would allow annual sessions of the Connecticut General Assembly. These amendments provide either that the assembly meet every year in regular session or that it meet in regular session in odd-numbered years and in even-numbered years for a short session which would be confined to consideration of budgetary and financial matters.

In 19 states the legislature meets annually. Twenty-eight of the 31 states which meet biennially hold their sessions in odd-numbered years. Kentucky, Mississippi, and Virginia hold biennial sessions in even-numbered years.

Of the 19 legislatures which meet annually, 10 hold regular sessions every year. The remaining 9 hold regular sessions every other year and budget sessions in alternate years. Budget sessions are shorter in duration and are ordinarily concerned with approval of the state budget and adoption of related financial legislation. This means that these states operate on an annual rather than a biennial budget; budget and financial matters are considered in both the regular sessions and the shorter budget sessions.

Limitations on Length of Regular Sessions. In 18 states there is no

⁴Districting and Redistricting the Connecticut Senate, p. 10.

constitutional limitation on the length of regular legislative sessions. The actual length of the last regular session in these states varies considerably (See Table II). The constitutions of thirty-two states limit the length of the legislative session. The shortest sessions are held in Georgia and Wyoming where they are limited to 40 calendar days. The limitation in 13 states is set at 60 calendar days, in 4 states at 60 legislative days, in 4 states at 120 calendar days, and in 2 states (Connecticut and Missouri) at approximately 150 calendar days.⁵ Restrictions in the 9 other states fall between these two extremes.

Limitations on Length of Budget Sessions. The length of the "off-year" budget sessions is not limited in two states. Five states restrict these sessions to 30 calendar days and two restrict them to 30 legislative days.

Days Actually in Session. Table II also indicates the total number of days that the legislature was in session during the two years 1958 and 1959 in each state. This figure includes all sessions, regular, budget, and special. For sixteen states, including Connecticut, the total days in session are stated in legislative days. During this two-year period the Connecticut General Assembly was in session for 91 legislative days; this total includes 76 legislative days in regular session in 1959 and 15 days in the special session called in March, 1958. Four of the other 15 state legislatures for which totals are given in legislative days met for a shorter time than did Connecticut's legislature. Seven of the 11 which met for a longer time than did Connecticut's legislature are not limited as to length of session and four of these meet annually.

Trend to Annual Sessions. As recently as the beginning of World War II, only four states (New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and South Carolina) held annual sessions. Five states adopted yearly meetings in the 1958-59 biennium,

⁵Connecticut's legislature must adjourn by Wednesday after the first Monday in June; Missouri's legislature must adjourn not later than May 31.

bringing the national total to 19. Three of the five states most recently adding annual sessions confine the "off-year" meetings to budgetary and financial matters. Constitutional amendments to allow either type of annual sessions have been considered in recent sessions of the Connecticut General Assembly. Arguments for annual adoption of the state budget are strong. Under the present biennial budget system, budget estimates must be projected over some 30 months and fluctuating economic conditions make accurate financial planning for this period of time almost impossible.

APPENDIX

TABLE I. SIZE OF STATE LEGISLATURES

State	1960 Population	Rank by Population	Size of Legislature			Rank by Size
			Senate	House	Total	
Alabama	3,244,386	19	35	106	141	27
Alaska	224,386	50	20	40	60	48
Arizona	1,281,357	35	28	80	108	38
Arkansas	1,772,428	31	35	100	135	31
California	15,530,973	2	40	80	120	36
Colorado	1,735,807	33	35	65	100	40
Connecticut	2,516,905	25	36	279 ^a	315	2
Delaware	443,158	46	17	35	52	49
Florida	4,890,001	10	38	95	133	32
Georgia	3,917,390	15	54	205	259	6
Hawaii	620,385	44	25	51	76	46
Idaho	663,606	42	44	59	103	39
Illinois	10,012,612	4	58	177	235	7
Indiana	4,636,800	11	50	100	150	22
Iowa	2,736,408	24	50	108	158	20
Kansas	2,161,421	29	40	125	165	17
Kentucky	3,012,051	22	38	100	138	30
Louisiana	3,231,738	20	39	101	140	29
Maine	964,235	36	33	151	184	12
Maryland	3,073,878	21	29	123	152	21
Massachusetts	5,114,558	9	40	240	280	3
Michigan	7,774,787	7	34	110	144	26
Minnesota	3,395,081	18	67	131	198	9
Mississippi	2,162,422	28	49	140	189	11
Missouri	4,273,174	13	34	157	191	10
Montana	668,022	41	56	94	150	23
Nebraska	1,398,875	34	—	—	43 ^b	50
Nevada	281,348	49	17	47	64	47
New Hampshire	599,533	45	24	100	424	1
New Jersey	6,018,570	8	21	60	81	44
New Mexico	943,348	37	32	66	98	41
New York	16,596,507	1	58	150	208	8
North Carolina	4,523,617	12	50	120	170	16
North Dakota	626,976	43	49	113	162	19
Ohio	9,627,371	5	33	139	172	14
Oklahoma	2,301,426	27	44	121 ^a	165	18
Oregon	1,756,366	32	30	60	90	42
Pennsylvania	11,219,034	3	50	210	260	5
Rhode Island	845,019	39	44	100	144	25
South Carolina	2,358,251	26	46	124	170	15
South Dakota	677,584	41	35	75	100	37
Tennessee	3,531,765	17	33	99	132	34
Texas	9,503,035	6	31	150	181	13
Utah	886,458	38	25	64	89	43
Vermont	387,081	47	30	246	276	4
Virginia	3,889,778	16	40	100	140	28
Washington	2,825,222	23	49	99	148	24
West Virginia	1,847,082	30	32	100	132	35
Wisconsin	3,925,854	13	33	100	133	33
Wyoming	326,578	48	27	56	83	45

FOOTNOTES TO TABLE I

^aIn Connecticut and Oklahoma the number of House members varies according to population increase. Beginning in 1961 the Connecticut House will have 294 members, an increase of 15, bringing the total to 330.

^bNebraska has the only unicameral legislature in the United States.

The following table shows the number of House members voting according to party lines in 1941. The House was divided 191-189 on the issue of the Lend-Lease Act. The House was divided 191-189 on the issue of the Lend-Lease Act.

Source: U.S. House of Representatives, 76th Congress, 1st Session, 1939-1940.

TABLE II. LENGTH OF LEGISLATIVE SESSIONS

State	Year Sessions Held	Constitutional Limit	Length of 1958-59 Regular Sessions	Total Days in Session 1958-59
Alabama	Odd	36L (b)	36L	38L
Alaska	Annual	None	81C	81L
Arizona	Annual	33C (c)	62C/69C	146C
Arkansas	Odd	60C	60C	60C/4L
California	Annual ^a	120C/30C (d)	120C/30C	226C
Colorado	Annual ^a	120C (c)	40C/105C	152C
Connecticut	Odd	150C (e)	76L	91L
Delaware	Annual ^a	90L/30L	-----	-----
Florida	Odd	60C (f)	60C	60C
Georgia	Annual ^a	40C	40C	40C
Hawaii	Annual	60C/30C (f)	83C (60L)	110L
Idaho	Odd	60C (c)	64C	64C
Illinois	Odd	None (g)	175C	175C/5L
Indiana	Odd	61C	61C	61C
Iowa	Odd	None (h)	116C	116C
Kansas	Annual ^a	60L (c)/30L	75C/30C	124C
Kentucky	Even	60L	60L	60L
Louisiana	Annual ^a	60C/30C	60C/30C	102C
Maine	Odd	None	91L	91L/7C
Maryland	Annual ^a	90C/30C	190C/30C	222C
Massachusetts	Annual	None	290C/245C	544C
Michigan	Annual	None	175/75L	251L
Minnesota	Odd	90L	77L	129L
Mississippi	Even	None	124C	124C
Missouri	Odd	150C (e)	150C	210C
Montana	Odd	60C	60C	60C
Nevada	Annual	60C (c)	67C (48L)	69C
New Hampshire	Odd	None	110L	115L
New Jersey	Annual	None	365C/365C	730C
New Mexico	Odd	60C	60C	60C
New York	Annual	None	58L/58L	117L
North Carolina	Odd	120C (c)	137C (118L)	137L
North Dakota	Odd	60L	61C	61C
Ohio	Odd	None	116L	119L
Oklahoma	Odd	None	105L	150L
Oregon	Odd	None	115C	115C
Pennsylvania	Annual ^a	None	113L	113L
Rhode Island	Annual	60L (c)	74L/76L	152L
South Carolina	Annual	None	61L/76L	137L
South Dakota	Odd	60C	60C	60C
Tennessee	Odd	75C (c)	75C	132C
Texas	Odd	120C (c)	120C	201C
Utah	Odd	60C	60C	62C
Vermont	Odd	None	156C	156C
Virginia	Even	60C (c,i)	60L	90L
Washington	Odd	60C	60C	75C
West Virginia	Annual ^a	60C/30C (j)	60C/30C	91C
Wisconsin	Odd	None	244	247C
Wyoming	Odd	40C	40C	40C

FOOTNOTES TO TABLE II

- (a) Even-year sessions confined to budgetary and fiscal matters, except Louisiana where odd-year sessions for budget only.
- (b) L - Legislative Days; C - Calendar Days. Where two figures are given the smaller is the limitation on the annual budget session.
- (c) Indirect restriction; legislators' pay ceases but session may continue.
- (d) Exclusive of Saturdays and Sundays.
- (e) Approximate length. Connecticut legislature convenes on Wednesday after first Monday in January and must adjourn not later than Wednesday after first Monday in June. Missouri legislature convenes on Wednesday after January 1 and must adjourn by May 31.
- (f) Length of session may be extended 30 days, but not beyond September 1 by 3/5 vote of both houses; in Hawaii the governor may extend any session for not more than 30 days; Sundays and holidays are excluded in computing session days.
- (g) In Illinois by custom the legislature adjourns by July 1, since all bills passed after that day are not effective until July 1 of the following year.
- (h) Custom and pay limit sessions to 100 calendar days.
- (i) May be extended up to 30 days by 3/5 vote of each house, but without pay.
- (j) Must be extended by Governor until general appropriation passed; may be extended by 2/3 vote of legislature.
- (k) Total number of days legislature in session 1958-59, including special sessions.

REDISTRICTING OF STATE SENATE AS PROPOSED BY SPECIAL
LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION
WITH FINAL 1960 POPULATIONS

District 1 - Hartford	54,059	District 10 - Southbury	5,186
District 2 - Hartford	54,059	Middlebury	4,785
District 3 - Hartford	<u>54,060</u>	Naugatuck	19,511
	162,178	Prospect	4,367
District 4 - Wethersfield	20,561	Wolcott	8,889
Rocky Hill	7,404	Cheshire	13,383
Glastonbury	14,497	Oxford	3,292
Manchester	42,102	Beacon Falls	2,886
Marlborough	<u>1,961</u>	Bethany	2,384
	86,525	Seymour	<u>10,100</u>
District 5 - Farmington	10,813		74,783
West Hartford	62,382	District 11 - Waterbury	53,565
Newington	<u>17,664</u>	District 12 - Waterbury	<u>53,565</u>
	90,859		107,130
District 6 - New Britain	82,201	District 13 - Meriden	51,850
District 7 - Bristol	45,499	Wallingford	<u>29,920</u>
Plainville	13,149		81,770
Southington	22,797	District 14 - Hamden	41,056
Berlin	<u>11,250</u>	Woodbridge	5,182
	92,695	Ansonia	19,819
District 8 - Granby	4,968	Derby	12,132
Suffield	6,779	Orange	<u>8,547</u>
East Granby	2,434		86,736
Windsor Locks	11,411	District 15 - North Haven	15,935
Windsor	19,467	North Branford	6,771
Bloomfield	13,613	Guilford	7,913
Simsbury	10,138	Madison	4,567
Canton	4,783	Branford	16,610
Burlington	2,790	East Haven	<u>21,388</u>
Avon	5,273		73,184
Hartland	<u>1,040</u>	District 16 - New Haven	50,682
	82,696	District 17 - New Haven	50,683
District 9 - Enfield	31,464	District 18 - New Haven	<u>50,683</u>
East Windsor	7,500		152,048
South Windsor	9,460	District 19 - Milford	41,662
East Hartford	<u>43,977</u>	West Haven	<u>43,002</u>
	92,401		84,664

District 20 - Colchester	4,648	District 31 - Sherman	825
Lebanon	2,434	New Fairfield	3,355
Franklin	974	Danbury	39,382
Sprague	2,509	Ridgefield	8,165
Lisbon	2,019	Bethel	8,200
Bozrah	1,590	Redding	3,359
Norwich	38,506	Newtown	11,373
Montville	7,759	Weston	4,039
Salem	<u>925</u>	Easton	3,407
	61,364	Brookfield	<u>3,405</u>
			85,510
District 21 - Griswold	6,472	District 32 - Warren	600
Voluntown	1,028	Litchfield	6,264
Preston	4,992	Harwinton	3,344
No. Stonington	1,982	New Milford	8,318
Ledyard	5,395	Washington	2,603
Groton	29,937	Morris	1,190
Stonington	<u>13,969</u>	Bethlehem	1,486
	63,775	Watertown	14,837
		Thomaston	5,850
District 22 - Lyme	1,183	Plymouth	8,981
Old Lyme	3,068	Woodbury	3,910
East Lyme	6,782	Roxbury	912
Waterford	15,391	Bridgewater	<u>898</u>
New London	<u>34,182</u>		59,193
	60,606		
District 23 - Bridgeport	52,249	District 33 - Salisbury	3,309
District 24 - Bridgeport	52,249	North Canaan	2,836
District 25 - Bridgeport	<u>52,250</u>	Norfolk	1,827
	156,748	Colebrook	791
		Canaan	790
District 26 - Monroe	6,402	Winchester	10,496
Trumbull	20,379	Barkhamsted	1,370
Shelton	18,190	New Hartford	3,033
Stratford	<u>45,012</u>	Torrington	30,045
	89,983	Goshen	1,288
		Cornwall	1,051
District 27 - New Canaan	13,466	Sharon	2,141
Wilton	8,026	Kent	<u>1,686</u>
Westport	20,955		60,663
Fairfield	<u>46,183</u>	District 34 - Middlesex County	88,865
	88,630	District 35 - Tolland County	68,737
District 28 - Darien	18,437	District 36 - Windham County	68,572
Norwalk	<u>67,775</u>		
	86,212		
District 29 - Stamford	92,713		
District 30 - Greenwich	53,793		

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ASSESSED VALUE AND MARKET VALUE OF REAL PROPERTY IN CONNECTICUT

An analysis of the 1959 Connecticut Tax Study Commission
Report and the 1957 Census of Governments

By

Patricia Stuart

Research Assistant

Institute of Public Service

Copies of this publication are available on request from
Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut
Storrs, Connecticut

The property tax provides three-fourths of local government revenue in Connecticut. Regardless of increased state aid, the financial health of our towns and cities depends on the continuing ability of the property tax to meet local spending needs. Yet the property tax is constantly criticised as being inequitable, regressive, incapable of responding to increased demand for funds; in short, it is said, the property tax will no longer provide sufficient revenue and local governments must look to other sources for added funds. These criticisms are not unjustified; they are made by most serious students of government finance. However, no one suggests that the property tax can be scrapped entirely. Therefore, can we improve it as a revenue source; more specifically, can we improve it in Connecticut?

The fiscal soundness of the property tax depends on its base--the amount and kinds of property available for taxation. The amount of property against which taxes can be levied depends on several things--1) The kinds of properties which can be taxed and the kinds of properties which are exempt; 2) the level of assessment; and 3) uniformity of assessment.

Two recent studies shed considerable light on these areas in Connecticut. The 1959 Connecticut Tax Study Commission and the 1957 Census of Governments evaluated certain aspects of property assessment in Connecticut. The findings of the Census of Governments, conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, are published in Taxable Property Values in the United States. Frederick L. Bird has written a comprehensive analysis of these findings, The General Property Tax: Findings of the 1957 Census of Governments. This study provides a basis for comparison between Connecticut and other states.

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Assessed Value of Property

The general property tax has become primarily a tax on real property in the U.S. and in Connecticut. The following table indicates the amount and per cent of total taxable assessed valuation by types of property in the U.S. and Connecticut.

Total Assessed Value of Taxable Property
by Types of Property, 1957¹
(Amounts in millions of dollars)

Type of Property	Assessed Value			
	United States		Connecticut	
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent
Assessed value subject to taxation, total	\$272,444	100.0%	\$6,634	100.0%
State assessed value, total	22,459	8.2	none	--
Locally assessed value, total	249,986	91.8	6,634	100.0
Real Property	202,798	74.4	4,900	73.9
Personal Property	47,188	17.4	1,734	26.1

These figures do not reveal anything about exempt property. A large area of property has been legally exempted in Connecticut, and its value never appears on the tax rolls. The above figures are also net of partial exemptions. In 1956, exemptions for veterans and the blind in Connecticut totalled \$214,000,000 or 3.1 per cent of the gross grand list of \$6,848,000,000.²

Furthermore, this real property tax is predominately a tax on residences in the United States and especially in Connecticut.

¹ Bird, Frederick L., The General Property Tax: Findings of the 1957 Census of Governments (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1960), p. 80.

² Ibid., pp. 21, 80.

Assessed Value of Taxable Property

The assessed property tax has become primarily a tax on real property in the State and in Connecticut. The following table indicates the amount and percentage of total taxable property assessed in the State and in Connecticut.

Total Assessed Value of Taxable Property
by Type of Property, 1954
(Amounts in millions of dollars)

State		Connecticut	
Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent
\$270,441	100.0	\$270,441	100.0
28,459	10.5	28,459	10.5
249,982	91.5	249,982	91.5
308,756	113.8	308,756	113.8
17,188	6.3	17,188	6.3
none	0.0	none	0.0
6,684	2.5	6,684	2.5
4,900	1.8	4,900	1.8
1,751	0.6	1,751	0.6
100.0	37.7	100.0	37.7

These figures do not reveal anything about exempt property. A large amount of property is exempt from taxation in the State and in Connecticut. The above figures are also net of partial exemptions on the tax rolls. In 1954, exemptions for veterans and the blind in Connecticut amounted to \$214,000,000 or 79 per cent of the gross grand list of \$270,441,000. Furthermore, this real property tax is predominantly a tax on residences in the State and in Connecticut.

The following table shows the distribution of the assessed value of taxable property by type of property in the State and in Connecticut, 1954.

Per Cent Distribution Gross Assessed Value of Real Estate
by Classes of Property³

<u>Class of Property</u>	<u>Per Cent of Assessed Value</u>	
	<u>United States</u>	<u>Connecticut</u>
Total	100.0%	100.0%
Residential (non-farm)	54.1	66.9
Single-family houses only	45.5	63.3
Acreage and farms	13.9	4.0
Vacant lots	2.3	1.3
Commercial and Industrial	27.7	27.0
Commercial	16.6	18.6
Industrial	10.8	8.3
Other and unallocable	2.1	0.8

Connecticut is typical of most states in the relation of single-family homes to total residential property; the wider difference nationally is produced largely by a few states, such as New York, with a very high number of multi-family dwellings. However, Connecticut has a considerably higher percentage of non-farm residential properties on its grand list than is true of the nation as a whole, while the percentage of commercial and industrial properties is virtually the same as the national average.

The Connecticut Tax Study Commission Report indicates the same relationship between real and personal property as does the Census Bureau report. However, it breaks the gross grand list down to show the distribution between business and non-business use for both real and personal property.

³ Ibid., p. 24.

Per Cent Distribution Gross Assessed Value
by Classes of Property and Ownership
in Connecticut, 1956⁴

<u>Class of Property</u>	<u>% of Assessed Value</u>
Total Gross Assessed Value	103.14%*
Real Property, total	76.18
Structures, total	59.32
Business	15.42
Other	43.90
Land, total	16.86
Lots	13.60
Acreage	3.26
Personal Property, total	26.96
Agricultural	0.31
Business	17.56
Motor vehicles & aircraft	8.63
Other	0.46

(*gross assessed value includes exempt property of 3.14 per cent.)

The combined real and personal property of businesses totals 32.98 per cent of the gross grand list; in addition, a portion of the value of motor vehicles and aircraft is attributable to business use, as is a portion of the land valuation.

The Tax Study Commission Report also reveals the fairly obvious fact that while non-business structures are 42 per cent of the state's gross grand list, this percentage varies widely among towns--in fact, from 15 per cent in Hartford to 77 per cent in Bridgewater. All business structures, including industrial and commercial, range from 0.13 per cent in Scotland to 34.9 per cent in Hartford.

⁴ Property Taxes in Connecticut, Report of the Connecticut Tax Study Commission (Hartford: The Commission, 1959), p. 24.

Per Cent Distribution Gross Assessed Value
 by Classes of Property and Geography
 in Scotland, 1964

Per Cent Assessed Value

100.00%

10.00%

10.00%

10.00%

Per Cent Assessed Value

Property, Total

Vehicle & Aircraft

(Gross assessed value includes exempt property of 2.5% per cent)

The Study Commission Report also reveals the fairly obvious fact that the distribution of assessed value among the various classes of property is not uniform. The distribution of assessed value among the various classes of property is not uniform. The distribution of assessed value among the various classes of property is not uniform. The distribution of assessed value among the various classes of property is not uniform.

The Connecticut Tax Study Commission went on to point out the wide variety among Connecticut towns in tax rates and tax amounts.

For example, in 1956, nine of the 169 towns had tax rates between 15 and 20 mills as compared with tax rates exceeding 50 mills in 4 towns. The greatest concentration of towns falls within tax rates between 30 and 35 mills. The greatest concentration of taxable values and tax dollars falls within tax rates between 35 and 40 mills. These two groups included 47 per cent of all towns (79) and accounted for 58 per cent of all net grand list values. They accounted for 61 per cent of all property tax levies and collections.

Variations in tax rates among towns raises questions concerning the extent to which they reflect differences in assessment levels as contrasted to differences in relative tax requirements. Until such time as Connecticut can compile realistic ratios of assessed value to fair market values for each Connecticut towns, it is in no position to answer such questions.⁵

Level of Assessment

Both the Tax Study Commission and the 1957 Census of Governments made studies attempting to show the level of assessment--the relationship between assessed value and market value. Connecticut law requires that assessments be made within each town at a uniform percentage of fair market value. This means that each town may assess at any percentage of fair market value it chooses; the state requires only that it assess all property, both real and personal, at the same percentage. There is no requirement that assessments be made at a uniform percentage throughout the state; so that even if it were possible for every town to achieve perfection in assessment practice and assess all property at absolute fair market value, the application of various percentages at local option would produce a variety of levels of assessment.

The Tax Study Commission and the Census Bureau undertook sales-assessment ratio studies in an attempt to determine the relationship between assessed value and fair market value. The Commission study included all towns in

⁵
Ibid., pp. 25-26.

The Tax Study Commission went on the point out the wide

variations in tax rates and tax amounts.

For example, in 1956, nine of the 169 towns had tax rates between 20 and 30 mills as compared with tax rates exceeding 30 mills in 14 towns. The greatest concentration of towns falls within tax rates between 30 and 40 mills. The greatest concentration of taxable values and tax dollars included 47 per cent of all towns (73) and accounted for 58 per cent of all net grand list values. They accounted for 51 per cent of all property tax levies and collections.

Variances in tax rates among towns raises questions concerning the extent to which they reflect differences in assessment levels as compared to differences in relative tax requirements. Until such time as a method can compare realistic ratios of assessed values to fair market values for each Connecticut town, it is in no position to answer such questions.

Assessment Methods

The Tax Study Commission and the 1954 General Assembly made a study attempting to show the level of assessment--the relationship between assessed value and market value. Connecticut law requires that assessments be made within each town at a uniform percentage of fair market value. This means that each town may assess at any percentage of fair market value. The state requires only that it assess all property, both real and personal, at the same percentage. There is no requirement that assessments be made at a uniform percentage throughout the state, so that even if all towns were to achieve perfection in assessment practices and assess all property at absolute fair market value, the collection of taxes would be at local option would produce a variety of levels of assessment. The Tax Study Commission and the General Assembly undertook a study--assessment and fair market value. The Commission study included all towns in an attempt to determine the relationship between assessed value and fair market value.

Connecticut. The census study was conducted on a sampling basis in every state in the country. The following quotations describe how the studies were conducted:

In its quest for a complete picture of real property assessment results throughout Connecticut, the Tax Study Commission undertook to ascertain average assessment ratios (assessed values as per cent of fair market values) in every town and city. This required extensive data gathering activities. At least some market values and assessed values were obtained in every town except Union. Serious effort was made to assure reliability both in the selection of data and in their interpretation. Questionnaires to grantors were used to check results obtained.

Real property sales reported during the period September 1, 1957 through February 28, 1958 were used. Consideration was limited to warranty deeds carefully screened to avoid such distorting influences as family transactions and sales to public agencies. Sale values were measured by internal revenue stamps affixed to the deeds with appropriate adjustment where mortgages were assumed. To avoid extreme rounding errors, no transactions involving minimum revenue stamps (55 cents) were included. In each case market values obtained in this way were assumed to be "fair market values."

Assessed values were obtained from local assessors who also assisted in matching assessments with sales. The State Association of Assessors and the Association of Town Clerks cooperated with the Commission and urged their members to assist in the work. In towns where local officials were unable to help, compilations were made by Commission representatives. No assessment was used where an extreme ratio indicated probable discrepancies due to new additions or demolitions between the assessment date and the time of sale.

It is not possible to develop appropriate weighting of example assessments in a manner to cause them to represent small scale models of real estate assessment rolls either at the town level or within the state total. In this respect average assessment ratios derived lack refinement and may not be completely representative. It was possible to group the example sales and assessments by major property classes so that results obtained can be considered separately for each class.

The result was a sample of 12,813 real property parcels, situated in 168 of the 169 Connecticut towns. With assessed values of \$92,619,994 and fair market values totaling \$196,823,556, the sample shows a statewide average assessment ratio of 47.06 per cent of fair market value.⁶

Of the 1957 Census of Governments Study, Bird says the following:

How far is it possible to adjust the assessed values used locally

⁶ Ibid., pp. 45-46.

for general property taxation to a full-value basis that would provide reasonable comparability was one of the major concerns of the 1957 Census of Governments. If such data could be made available on a nationwide basis, much of the prevailing obscurity about the fiscal abilities of local governments would be cleared, and comparative information of great utility would be made available to persons concerned with the financial and economic affairs of the nation's many thousands of local communities. Taxable personal property, because of its elusive and variable position in the nation's property tax base, did not lend itself to such evaluation, and state-assessed property presented the obstacles of being a partially unsegregated combination of real and personal property. On the other hand, the means were available to provide reasonable estimates of full value of locally assessed real property, which in 1956 was three-fourths of the total valuation of all taxable property.

To provide such estimates, and to derive from assessed valuations other pertinent information on assessment administration, the Bureau of the Census undertook, on a sampling basis, an assessment-sales ratio study--a measurement of the relation between assessed value and sales price--of taxable property sold in each state during a 6-month period of 1956. Such a sales-ratio survey has definite limitations in producing all of the desired results, . . . but studies of this nature have been found valuable in the equalization of assessments by an increasing number of states, and in planning the survey the Census took full advantage of this experience. By utilizing recent advances in the field of scientific sampling, it was possible to conduct such a survey economically on a nationwide basis.

This survey . . . was limited to sales of real estate listed on local property tax rolls. Care was taken to cover only "measurable"--or ordinary market basis--sales, and to exclude types of property transfers (among relatives, for example) where the total monetary consideration might not resemble current market worth. Sales of new single-family houses, not previously occupied were excluded on the ground that the assessed values might not yet reflect the values of the completed structures.

The survey utilized judicious methods of subclassification and weighting. Average sales ratios were computed, state by state, for each major use class of property--nonfarm residential, acreage and farms, vacant lots, and commercial and industrial property. A simple sales-based average can be derived by dividing the total assessed value of the properties sold by the total sales price of the properties sold. Since, however, this method of computation ignores inter-area differences within a state in the proportions of property sold, as well as differences in the turnover rate among various size or value classes of property, which may distort the state average, the Census publication offers four alternative weighted average ratios. In most states . . . the differences between the sets of ratios are small.

⁷ Bird, pp. 38-39.

The Census Bureau study in Connecticut used 14,361 properties with an assessed value of \$81,633,000 and sales prices totalling \$185,767,000 to arrive at an average state-wide assessment ratio of 43.9 per cent and a weighted (by both type and size of property) average assessment ratio of 46.7 per cent. The table on the following page shows results of both studies by types of property.

Both studies show that in 1956 and 1957 Connecticut was assessing taxable property at less than half of its fair market value. The Census Bureau study, however, allows us to compare ourselves with other states. The nation-wide average level of local real property assessments in 1956 was about 30 per cent of sales value. Average assessment ratios for individual states ranged very widely--from a "somewhat isolated high" of 66 per cent in Rhode Island to an "extraordinarily modest low" of 7 per cent in South Carolina. Comparing Connecticut's average assessment ratio weighted by type and size of property (46.7%) with other states shows us to be sixth highest in the nation. Only Rhode Island (66%), New York (56%), the District of Columbia (51%), Maryland, (48%), and Wisconsin (48%) are higher. The median state ratio is 26 per cent and the ratios of 18 states are less than 20 per cent.⁸

From these comparisons, Bird makes the following observations:

Although the sales ratios disclose no sharply defined regional pattern of assessment level, a few features stand out with some significance. (1) Low ratios tend to be accompanied by relatively low state-local dependence on property taxes: 9 of the 12 states with low property tax dependence have below-average sales ratios. (2) There are evident regional differences: in New England, where only in Rhode Island are local governments subject to tax rate limits, the sales ratios of all the states exceed the median level; western and southern states, on the other hand, predominate in the group with ratios below the median level. (3) Even in those states that have undertaken in recent years to establish legal assessment levels at fractions of full value that would approximate assessment practice, the indicated sales ratios of 1956 are well below the new legal standards.⁹

⁸
Ibid., p. 39.

⁹
Ibid., pp. 39-40.

... 44,633,000 and sales prices totaling \$185,757,000 to

... an average state-wide assessment ratio of 1.29 per cent and a

The table on the following page shows results of both studies of

of property

The Bureau

however, allows us to compare ourselves with other states. The nation-

average level of local real property assessments in 1955 was about 30

very widely--from a "nominal" assessed value of 10 per cent in Maine

to an extraordinarily modest 1.01 per cent in South Carolina.

Comparing Connecticut's average assessment ratio weighted by type and size of

property (46.73) with other states shows us to be sixth highest in the nation.

... Rhode Island (60), New York (54), the District of Columbia (51),

... (45), and Wisconsin (15) are higher. The median state ratio is

5 percent and the ratios of 11 states are less than 20 per cent.

From these comparisons, Bird makes the following observations:

... (1) The ratios tend to be considerably higher in states with low prop-
erty assessments on property taxes. (2) There are evi-
dent regional differences: in New England, where only in Rhode Island
and local governments subject to tax rate limits, the sales ratios of
all the states exceed the median level; western and southern states, on
the other hand, are in the group with ratios below the median.
... in those states that have undergone in recent years
assessment ratios as fractions of full value that
... new legal standards.

RESULTS OF SALES-ASSESSMENT RATIO STUDIES

Type of Property	Connecticut Tax Study Commission (1957)				Census Bureau Study for Connecticut (1956)			
	No. of Prop- erties	Assessed Value	Fair Mar- ket Value	Assess- ment Ratio	No. of Prop- erties	Assessed Value	Fair Mar- ket Value	Assessment Ratio Simple Weighted
Residential					8,932	\$63,778,000	\$143,887,000	44.3%
Single-family	7,997	\$64,201,956	\$144,668,814	47.6%				45.0%
2-4 family	653	4,931,252	10,386,595	47.48				
4 or more	77	1,903,215	3,392,355	56.10				
Mixed Business and Residential	53	585,970	1,177,480	49.76				
Commercial	238	10,722,471	20,966,735	51.14	563	10,821,000	21,080,000	51.3
Industrial	20	674,000	1,365,624	49.36				55.3
Vacant Land	3,336	3,989,632	12,720,765	30.64	3,235	2,908,000	8,363,000	34.8
Farms	439	5,702,468	13,144,188	46.96	1,517	3,503,000	10,607,000	30.0
All Property	12,813	\$92,619,994	\$196,823,556	47.06%	14,361	\$81,633,000	\$185,767,000	43.9%
								46.7%

Source: Property Taxes in Connecticut, p. 47; Taxable Property Values in the United States, 1957 Census of Governments.
Washington: Bureau of the Census, 1959, p. 88.

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It is significant to note in this connection that while Connecticut has no state imposed assessment level, assessors reported assessment ratios in 1958 ranging from 30 per cent to 100 per cent, and that the 65 per cent level recommended by the Tax Study Commission for the entire state is considerably higher than actual practice. The average of the ratios reported by assessors in 1958 is 59.9 per cent.

What are the consequences for local government of underassessment? Bird points out that "underassessment contracts legal taxing and borrowing powers and expands the value of partial tax exemptions geared to assessed valuation."¹⁰ Connecticut imposes no maximum tax rate limit on local governments as do some two-thirds of the states, and towns are free to determine the level of assessment they will use. Furthermore, assessment is strictly a town function in Connecticut and towns are not hampered by underassessment by other units of government such as counties, as they are in some states. Arbitrary establishment of assessment ratios does contract the local tax base significantly. For example, a town which conducts a complete revaluation of all property based on current market prices, achieves a close approximation of 100 per cent of fair market value for all property, and then decides to use only 60 per cent of those values as its assessments, immediately writes off 40 per cent of the value as untaxable. Furthermore, as values rise and property is not revalued, the assessment ratio declines even further.

The degree to which underassessment actually hampers local borrowing power in Connecticut deserves further study. There is evidence, however, that some towns and cities have definitely been deterred from making needed

¹⁰Ibid., p. 40

capital improvements by having their debt limit geared to low assessed values.

Partial tax exemptions combined with underassessment significantly narrow the tax base. Thus, in Connecticut a \$1,000 veterans' exemption is worth \$2,000, of full market value at an assessment ratio of 50 per cent. However, the narrowing of the tax base through exemptions increases the tax rate to some extent so that the veteran does not get the full advantage of the exemption.

Uniformity of Assessments

Uniformity of assessments has several facets--uniformity between types of property within a town, uniformity within a type of property within a town, uniformity between types of property between towns, and uniformity within a type of property between towns. If assessments were completely uniform, residential and business property, for example, would be assessed at the same percentage of market value in every town in the state. Obviously, this is not the case; the question is how close do we approximate uniformity.

The Tax Study Commission found that on a state-wide basis, real property assessments varied from 56.1 per cent of market value on apartments of four or more units to 30.64 per cent on vacant land. The Census Bureau found similar discrepancies between classes of property in Connecticut. The Tax Study Commission commented that:

Similarity of assessment ratios for the several classes of property within the sample implies greater uniformity of tax treatment than actually exists. . . . The 12,813 example assessment ratios range from under 20 per cent of fair market value for 1,002 properties to more than 80 per cent of fair market value for 558 properties. Slightly fewer than $\frac{1}{2}$ (48.36%) of the example assessment ratios fall between 40 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market value.

The spread of example assessment ratios is no respecter of property

class. For example: 7,997 single family residential property assessments include 152 at less than 20 per cent of fair market value as well as 298 in excess of 80 per cent of fair market value. Although example residential property assessments are spread throughout this range, almost $\frac{3}{5}$ (58.5%) of them fall between 40 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market value.

The second largest number of example assessments in the 3,336 assessments of vacant land. These range from under 20 per cent of fair market value for 810 parcels to more than 80 per cent for 161 parcels. In contrast to other property classes, approximately $\frac{3}{5}$ of example vacant land assessments are under 40 per cent of fair market value. Only $\frac{1}{4}$ (24.88%) of them fall within the popular range between 40 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market value.

With the highest average assessment ratio (56.1%) of any property class sampled, 77 apartments (residential, 4 or more families) include 2 assessed at less than 30 per cent of fair market value and 9 assessed at more than 80 per cent of fair market value. Approximately one-half of these assessments (49.35%) fall between 40 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market value.

The smallest number of assessments sampled for any class was 20 industrial assessments. These twenty industrial assessments ranged from less than 30 per cent of fair market value for 2 properties to more than 80 per cent of fair market value for one property. Eight of them (40%) fall within the range between 40 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market value.

Commercial property assessments appear to spread more widely than is true of other classes. The sample of 238 commercial assessments include 15 (6.3%) under 20 per cent of fair market value and 28 (11.76%) over 80 per cent of fair market value. Fewer than $\frac{1}{2}$ of these example assessments fall between 40 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market value.¹¹

Further, the Commission found that:

. . . large properties and small ones are not always assessed at the same percentage of their market value. For example, all example single residential properties assessed at more than \$7,500 show average assessments higher than the 47.7 per cent of fair market value average for all residential properties. The range for residential properties is from an average of 19.66 per cent of fair market value for 70 properties assessed less than \$1,000 to an average of 69.21 per cent for 16 properties assessed at \$30,000 or more.

To a lesser extent, this same picture of low assessment ratios upon properties with low assessed valuations is shown for each class of property. . . . This result is due in part to differences in assessment levels as among towns where the properties are located. Detailed examination of assessments in each town, however, indicates wide variation in assessment results by size of property.

¹¹ Property Taxes in Connecticut, pp. 47-49.

The implication is that the quest for uniform real estate assessments must reach beyond merely treating all like properties in the same way to include also methods to bring assessed values nearer to a common percentage of fair market value throughout the value range.¹²

The Commission also found a wide variety of assessments between towns.

Property assessments examined in 168 of the 169 Connecticut towns show ratios ranging from less than 20 per cent of fair market value in three towns to more than 70 per cent of fair market value in one town. . . . Example assessments averaged between 30 per cent and 60 per cent of fair market values in 155 of the 168 towns.

. . . example properties of all classes are not reflected within average assessment ratios for all towns. For example, single family residential properties were reported in 166 of the 168 towns. Average assessments for this class of property ranged from less than 20 per cent of market value in 3 towns to more than 70 per cent in 1 town. The largest number of towns (75) show average assessments between 40 per cent and 49 per cent of market value. Single family residential assessments in 147 towns range between 30 per cent and 60 per cent of market value.¹³

And the Commission concluded:

Real estate assessments in Connecticut towns are not uniform in relation to fair market values as among towns, as among property classes, nor as among individual properties within classes.

Absence of uniform assessments for real estate means that local real estate taxes in Connecticut do not apply with equal weight upon all real estate owners. As a first step in bringing greater equity to the property tax upon which local governments rely for their major support, Connecticut needs to improve its real estate assessment procedure.¹⁴

The Census Bureau conducted a slightly different examination of assessments in its efforts to evaluate the degree of intra-area and interarea uniformity. Their data pertaining to assessment administration in local assessing areas were restricted to assessments of single-family nonfarm houses, so that the findings of this study are confined to measurement of uniformity of

¹² Ibid., pp. 49-51.

¹³ Ibid., p. 51.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 54.

assessments on one type of property within the sample towns and between towns.

Measureable sales of this kind of property were sufficiently numerous and wide-spread to permit their analysis in a large number of local areas, the sold property appeared to be more representative of all properties of its class than did that of other classes; and since this class of property lends itself more readily than do most other classes of property to the establishment and maintenance of uniform assessing standards, a study of its assessment could provide a fair test of the general quality of local assessing administration.¹⁵

This study concentrated on the 1,263 assessment areas in the sample survey of real property sales in which 5 or more sample transfers of nonfarm houses were recorded. Although they represent only a small portion of the total number of assessment areas in the United States, they included 70 per cent of the nation's population in 1950. These selected areas do not provide a balanced representation of all local assessing areas, as a high percentage are large urban areas and only a small percentage are small and rural areas; but they are sufficiently representative to permit some comparison of assessment standards in large and small areas, areas inside and outside of standard metropolitan areas, and areas under the three types of assessment jurisdiction under which they were grouped for the Census study.¹⁶

Even with due allowance for the fact that the data. . . are based on selected areas, that they cover only one major class of real property, and that the nonfarm houses sold in a 6-month period may not be precisely representative of the properties that were not sold, the findings emphasize the complete absence of uniformity of assessment level among the nation's local assessing areas and suggest strongly that drastic under-assessment is almost universal. The findings add support, also, to the previously expressed view that the fiscal powers of a great majority of local governments--operating as they do under constitutional, statutory, and charter tax rate and debt limits based on assessed value aggregates--are severely limited by assessment policies.¹⁷

Uniformity within towns in Connecticut. The Census Bureau study of intra-area uniformity in assessment of single family nonfarm residences goes a step further than did the Tax Study Commission; it attempts to evaluate the degree of attainment of acceptable standards of assessment in local taxing districts. In so doing, it reveals some significant facts for Connecticut.

¹⁵Bird, p. 49.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 49-50.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 50.

The study includes 38 selected areas in Connecticut. The total sample of nonfarm houses was 7,396, but all of these are not necessarily included in the 38 selected areas studied.

To measure the degree of intra-area uniformity a "coefficient of dispersion" was used as an index of assessment inequality. This figure is computed as follows: (1) Individual assessment ratios of the sold properties in the sample were computed and the median ratio determined. (2) The deviation in percentage points of each individual ratio from the median ratio was found, and the sum of these deviations was divided by the number of ratios to ascertain the average deviation. (3) The coefficient of dispersion is then the average deviation divided by the median assessment ratio.

The lower the coefficient of dispersion, the more uniform are the assessments. A coefficient of 20 is considered a most desirable and attainable goal. Of the total selected areas in the U.S., 7.4 per cent had a coefficient of dispersion of less than 15 and 20.4 per cent were below 20. Connecticut's record was substantially better than the national average; 28 of the 38 selected areas had coefficients less than 20 and 8 had coefficients from 20 to 25. Seventy-four per cent of the areas studied in Connecticut have coefficients of dispersion of less than 20 and the median was 17.4.¹⁸

The Census Bureau study also found a measurable tendency for assessment ratios within towns to be disproportionately low for higher-priced houses. The effect of regression is that lower-priced houses pay a disproportionately large share of property taxes. Regression is measured by determining the price-related differential; the extent to which the price-related differential exceeds 100 per cent marks the degree of regression. In all selected

¹⁸Taxable Property Values in the United States, 1957 Census of Governments (Washington: Bureau of the Census, 1959), p. 88.

areas in the U.S., the price related differential was 107.6 per cent. Again, Connecticut's record was good. In 2 of Connecticut's 38 areas it was less than 95 per cent; in 11 from 95 to 99.9 per cent; in 17 from 100 to 104.9 per cent. In no case was it higher than 119.9 per cent.¹⁹

Uniformity between towns in Connecticut. The Census Bureau also determined a coefficient of dispersion for the state as a whole which indicates the degree of uniformity in assessments of nonfarm houses between towns. Twenty-one states had coefficients of dispersion between assessment districts of less than 20; fifteen states, including Connecticut with a coefficient of 14, were less than 15.²⁰

Underassessment and Uniformity

What is the relationship between underassessment and lack of uniformity? Do these two faults tend to act together to pull down assessment standards even further? The Census Bureau study of sales-assessment ratios on nonfarm houses indicates that inequality of assessment tends to increase as the level of assessment declines. Bird points out that: "It would appear, from the assessment level-coefficient of dispersion relationship disclosed in the study, that deep underassessment is a species of built-in hazard in the assessing process. Equality of intra-area assessment, difficult to obtain under the most favorable conditions, is much more difficult even to approximate with assessment at minor fractions of full value. There is considerable doubt, for this reason, that the shot-gun wedding type of legislation now being adopted or urged to make such underassessment legitimate is a sound remedy for inequity."²¹

¹⁹Ibid., p. 89.

²⁰Bird, pp. 64-65.

²¹Ibid., p. 59.

A Caution

While it is easy to generalize from the Census Bureau studies that a low assessment ratio, a high coefficient of dispersion, and regression in assessments is a pretty sad situation and something should be done, it is not so easy to generalize that Connecticut with a high ratio, low coefficient of dispersion, and less regression has reached the millenium in assessment practice. The Census Bureau study reflects the highest standard of assessment that is likely to exist in the state. It dealt with large towns and cities in which assessment is on a professional basis; it studied the types of assessments in which there is likely to be the highest amount of uniformity.

Conclusions

What conclusions can be drawn from these two studies? The first and obvious conclusion is that assessment administration in Connecticut is far from perfect. Underassessment deprives our towns and cities of about one-half of their potential real property tax base. Inequality in assessment between towns and between types of properties fails to distribute the property tax burden equitably. The next obvious conclusion is that we are better off than most states. Our level of assessment and degree of uniformity are very high compared with other states and with accepted standards.

These two studies also indicate that even under relatively good assessment practice assessed values do not keep up with increases in market value. Obviously, a portion of this lag is due to deliberate underassessment--to fractional assessment sanctioned by law. From the fiscal point of view, the case for reduction of assessed value by a stated percentage is, to say the least, shaky; there is also some question whether it is entirely justified from the assessor's point of view. In this connection Bird makes the following observations:

Opinion differs as to whether full-value assessment or fractional assessment is the most satisfactory procedure. Proponents of full-value assessment hold that it makes inequalities more noticeable, gives taxpayers a better opportunity to identify and obtain rectification of inequities, and impels assessors to use more care and skill in assessment. The point of view of professional assessors who see advantages in at least approaching full-value assessment may be illustrated by the following statement:

"Does it really make any difference whether assessments are at full or at a fraction of full value? From the point of view of uniformity, it probably does not although it is often said that relative under- or over-assessment is more easily discerned at full value. There is probably some truth in this, which would impel me to believe that assessments would be better made if their levels were up reasonably near where they ought to be." (Thomas A. Byrne, "Some Administrative Problems in Property Taxation," in Proceedings of Forty-ninth Annual Conference on Taxation of the National Tax Association, 1957).

The author of this statement, Tax Commissioner Byrne, as well as other experienced assessors, believe that close adherence to market value as determined by sales prices is not entirely compatible, however, with the primary objective of uniformity. . . . Nevertheless, there is general agreement among authorities on property tax administration that drastic underassessment tends to produce greater inequality of assessment than assessment at a level that more nearly approaches full value.²²

There is evidence in the two studies to indicate that assessments usually do not even reach the stated fractional assessment. The Connecticut Tax Study Commission found that assessments in almost all towns were below the assessor's declared percentage. It is this type of underassessment which is of greatest concern. Why does assessment administration, then, fail to reach full-value or even a stated percentage of full-value?

One reason is competitive underassessment. Competitive underassessment, as an inducement to industry, for example, is a reflection of community policy rather than assessor's policy. Another reason is the pressure of influential property owners for minimizing property taxes in favor of other forms of revenue.

However, assessment policy established by the assessors is responsible

²² Ibid., pp. 34-35.

for a large portion of underassessment. As Bird points out, "underassessment is more popular with the taxpayers, it helps to obscure unequal assessing, and it avoids the controversies that are bound to arise when full-value assessing is attempted."²³ These are important considerations for elected or unskilled assessors. Furthermore, in periods of inflation assessors may distrust current market levels or make no consistent effort to adjust assessments to steadily rising prices.

Underlying all of these reasons is the problem of uniformity in assessment. Even though there is evidence that inequality increases as level of assessment decreases, the search for uniformity is probably the cause of most of our underassessment. The conflict then is between uniformity for the sake of uniformity and uniformity at full market value.

Professional assessors place primary emphasis on uniformity in assessment and tend to be less concerned with obtaining uniformity at the level set by law. Thomas A. Byrne, Milwaukee tax commissioner, has stated that "it is human for assessors to pay more attention to this first requirement than to the second, which is that uniformity must be obtained at the full statutory level." He goes on to explain:

Every attempt to achieve uniformity must originate in the adoption of a method. . . . The aim is to procure uniformity; the method is to systematize the application of judgement and narrow its application to the point where it no longer becomes an excuse for carelessness or, here and there, favoritism. Once an office has installed a system it is extremely difficult to change it. There can be built into it, of course, market value adjustment procedures which probably could make it more responsive to the market than is usually so, but in places where there are several hundred thousand data cards, the mere mechanics of handling them and the application of the necessary factors to existing assessments is a job which one does not undertake lightly. In this area the assessor becomes the victim of the inflexibility of his own machinery. Thus he tends to stick with his approach beyond a time when its basis is defensible except as a means of uniformity. (Thomas A. Byrne, "Full Value Assessments in Practice: Reasons for Underassessment," Assessors' News Letter (International Association of Assessing Officers, January 1959.)

In justification of underassessment, the assertion often is made

²³
Ibid., pp. 32.

that the level of assessment is of no concern so long as there is equality of assessment. It makes no difference to the taxpayer, it is pointed out, whether his tax bill is computed by applying a tax rate of \$2 per \$100 to a full-value assessment or a tax rate of \$10 per \$100 to an assessment at one-fifth of full value. This point of view overlooks the fact that assessed value, in addition to providing a tax base, usually controls or influences certain basic fiscal powers and policies of local government.²⁴

Some states, including Connecticut, have sought a solution to the problem of underassessment by legalizing percentage assessments at levels which approach existing practice. When the Connecticut Supreme Court of Errors sought to enforce the statutory requirement of assessment at 100 per cent of fair market value in 1957, the General Assembly legalized assessments in each town at a percentage of fair market value as determined by the assessor. In making its report in 1959 the Tax Study Commission recommended a compromise arrangement to replace the former 100 per cent assessment. The Commission proposed that (1) fair market value be retained as the standard for valuing real property; (2) 65 per cent of fair market value be the legal percentage for assessment of real property; and (3) assessments be allowed to vary 10 per cent from the established 65 per cent ratio. In making this suggestion the Commission emphasized that much of the prevailing underassessment was due to a lack of state supervision of assessments and recommended establishment of a local property tax unit within the State Tax Department. This unit would be responsible for guidance, and consultation with assessors, for annual publication of sales-assessment ratio statistics, and for enforcement of compliance with state requirements.

²⁴Ibid., pp. 32-33.

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INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION THROUGH MUNICIPAL ASSOCIATIONS

An examination of the municipal league movement in the United States
and its significance for Connecticut municipalities

By

Rosaline Levenson
Research Assistant
Institute of Public Service

Copies of this publication are available on request from the
Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut
Storrs, Connecticut

INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION THROUGH MUNICIPAL ASSOCIATIONS

By Rosaline Levenson, Research Assistant
Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut

INTRODUCTION

Municipal league movement in Connecticut

The practice of American governments in uniting for a common purpose is as old as the American system itself, dating back to the Revolutionary period when the original thirteen states joined together first under the Articles of Confederation and then under the Constitution to form a "more perfect union."

This paper is a report on another association of American governmental units--that of municipalities. Such association, while not as portentous nor as monumental as the union of American states, nevertheless has brought about important changes in the corporate life of American municipalities.

Municipalities are incorporated towns, cities, and other districts such as boroughs which have powers of self-government under specific grant from the state. In forty-five of the fifty states, the municipalities have formed voluntary associations as a means of providing mutual assistance and public service. The associations, organized at the state level, are united through a national organization, the American Municipal Association.

Connecticut is one of only five states which do not have an association of municipalities. Yet the concept of joint action by municipalities is not new to the Nutmeg state. Three times in the past, towns and cities of Connecticut united to form an association. The first attempt at organization was in the early 1930's with the formation of the Connecticut League of Municipalities. The league was launched with a grant obtained from the Spellman Foundation through cooperation of the American Municipal

Association. No dues were set and the league's primary interest was in legislation affecting the municipalities.

In 1937, the league was reorganized with another grant from the Spellman Foundation. Richard Martin, at present town manager of Manchester, was executive secretary of the league for two years. Serving as presidents in various periods were Mayor Frank Stack of Norwalk, Mayor George Quigley of New Britain, and First Selectman John Ferguson of Fairfield. This time dues were established and set at \$25 to \$200, depending upon population of the member municipality.

Interests of the reorganized Connecticut league were broader than its predecessor. The league held meetings and conferences, with the first conference attracting some 123 appointed and elected municipal officials of Connecticut. In addition, the league published a newsletter and undertook such projects as a model municipal pension ordinance and a study of fiscal relations between municipalities and the state of Connecticut.

With the outbreak of World War II, interest in the league declined and it was not until 1953 that another attempt at municipal organization was made. The new organization, called the Association of Connecticut Towns and Cities, was headed by First Selectman Edmund J. Keleher of Newington as the first president. Selectman Keleher succeeded Mayor Stephen K. Bailey of Middletown, who had served as temporary chairman pending election of officers. The Association of Connecticut Towns and Cities was active for three years, during which time it cooperated with professional associations of local officials and sponsored legislation of interest to municipalities.

Why is there no league in Connecticut at present?

Why has it been difficult for an association of municipalities to gain a permanent foothold in Connecticut? The reasons most commonly advanced

by interested observers have been twofold: (1) Connecticut is so small in area that it is possible for a municipal official from any part of the state to drive to the capital at Hartford, speak to a given legislator or state official about the needs of his community, and return home within the same day; and (2) there already are public and private research agencies in the state which perform the research duties commonly discharged by municipal leagues. Therefore, say these observers, the most important functions of municipal leagues--legislative representation and research--are available through sources presently at the disposal of the towns and cities.

Yet municipal leagues fulfill other functions besides those of providing legislative representation and research. That interest in a municipal league still exists in Connecticut is apparent from recommendations made to the current session of the General Assembly by the Mayors of Connecticut Group. The Mayors' Group proposed that steps be taken to establish an organization of Connecticut municipalities, with membership open to the 169 towns and cities in the state.

It is the purpose of this paper to assist local officials interested in establishing a municipal league by describing the scope and operations of leagues in general. The first part of the paper defines municipal leagues and their activities, while the second part concerns their operating procedures. The relationship of municipal leagues to other governmental organizations is examined in the third part. The report concludes with discussion of how a municipal league can be of assistance in Connecticut.

Information for the report was obtained primarily from a study of league constitutions and by-laws and also from correspondence with the leagues and the American Municipal Association. In addition, research publications of the various leagues were examined, as well as various editions of the Municipal Year Book (Chicago: The International City

Managers' Association). The report, however, is meant as a spot check of league activities, rather than a survey of all the leagues in the United States.

1. NATURE AND SCOPE OF MUNICIPAL LEAGUES

Municipal leagues defined

Municipal leagues are voluntary, nonprofit associations organized to represent local governments. Their membership includes mayors, councilmen, managers, finance officers, city clerks, city attorneys, public works officials, and other types of elected and appointed officials. However, the leagues represent municipalities as corporate bodies, not individual officials. The latter generally belong to a municipal league only as long as they hold public office.

All leagues are concerned with over-all problems of municipalities and seek ways of improving municipal services and functions. This is accomplished through meetings and training institutes, the publication of reports and special studies, consultation and technical assistance on legal and administrative matters, the promotion of civic awareness among citizens, and the encouragement of legislation that would benefit municipalities. While these functions are also performed by both public and private agencies and organizations, they frequently reflect the viewpoint of special interests groups or promote the objective of a given agency. Work of the municipal leagues, by contrast, is in behalf of the municipalities themselves to further the ends of local government. Through the municipal league, a unified approach to the problems and needs of local governments is made possible.

Development of the leagues

Towns and cities are not the only government bodies that have become organized. At the state level, the Council of State Governments serves the

interests of the states similarly to the way in which municipal associations aid local governments. County jurisdictions also have their own organization, the National Association of County Officials. Government officials are also professionally organized. Town and city managers, town clerks, finance officers, assessors, tax collectors, and public welfare administrators, for example, are only a few of the numerous professional groups represented by a state organization in Connecticut and a national body in Washington or Chicago.

Many state municipal leagues are older than these professional associations of government officials. Leagues first came into existence in Iowa, Wisconsin, and California in 1898; by the beginning of the century, there were additional leagues in Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin. The leagues were formed to meet the needs of growing cities and towns in a period when state legislatures were dominated by agricultural and rural interests. Their second period of growth was in the depression years of the 1930's when cities and towns sought financial assistance from the federal government. Today there are leagues in every state except Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, Delaware, and Hawaii. In the latter case, however, steps have been taken to organize the Hawaiian local governments.

Municipal leagues thus are found not only in nearly every state in the Union, but one state--Pennsylvania--has five, representing cities, boroughs, township supervisors, township commissioners, and municipal authorities. The Pennsylvania associations have their own building in the state capital at Harrisburg. Called the Local Government Center, the building has become as well known in municipal circles as the headquarters for state and national organizations at 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago.

Yet in New England, by way of contrast, municipal leagues have had a difficult time trying to gain a permanent foothold, although there presently

are three in existence: the Maine, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire associations. The Maine association was formed in 1936 and for nearly twenty years was the only one in New England. The Massachusetts league was organized in February of 1961.

In New Hampshire, a municipal association had been established in 1955 but four years later was forced to curtail its activities when the Governor vetoed a bill passed by the New Hampshire legislature which would have authorized the municipalities to appropriate money for dues. New legislation was passed by the 1961 New Hampshire legislature to meet the Governor's objections to the 1959 bill. The 1961 bill, now enacted into law, permits New Hampshire municipalities to make appropriations for membership dues on condition that the association refrain from engaging in partisan political activity or appointing committees to appear before the legislature on matters which do not directly affect the New Hampshire towns and cities.

Functions of the leagues

The scope of services and functions performed by the leagues generally falls into four categories: (1) legislative, (2) educational, (3) informational, and (4) technical assistance.

(1) Legislative

The legislative program of leagues constitutes an important means whereby municipalities are able to make their needs and problems known to the state legislatures. All leagues maintain contacts with their state legislators, and before each legislative session they generally sponsor legislation which will benefit municipalities. The leagues have been successful in bringing about such changes as a more equitable share of state tax revenues for municipalities, an extension of Old Age and Survivors' Insurance (Social Security) to municipal employees, and greater home rule for local governments.

The leagues also serve as legislative watchdogs for the municipalities, helping to defeat proposed legislation which might be injurious to local communities. Recently, for example, the Kentucky league successfully opposed several bills which would have regulated municipal wages and loans, while the New York association was successful in setting aside a proposed constitutional change that would have eliminated city and village courts.

(2) Educational

The educational function of municipal leagues is performed at meetings, training courses, and institutes held for elected and appointed officials. Some 30,800 municipal officials attended annual conferences of the leagues in 1960--an increase of 3,000 over 1959 conference attendance.¹ League-conducted training courses totaled 215 in 1960 and were attended by 10,500 officials. The meetings and training courses not only provide officials with the means of improving their administrative skills and knowledge of municipal operations, but also serve as a forum where experiences are discussed and ideas exchanged. In this way, officials are stimulated into keeping informed on the newest developments in government and into bringing back to their own municipality progressive thoughts on improving municipal operations.

The leagues also encourage improvements in municipal operations among public employees. Since 1926, the Kansas league has annually awarded buttons to public employees having long records of municipal service. The California league co-sponsors a yearly city employee safety contest, while the North Carolina association grants an annual award of \$50 and a certificate of merit to the official with the most distinguished record in the municipal administration course conducted at the state university. In addition, many

¹ Correspondence with the American Municipal Association.

leagues encourage young people to enter the municipal service by offering scholarships to qualified students of government. Leagues in Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, and South Dakota are among those which make such scholarships available.

(3) Informational

The informational services of municipal leagues are performed for both government officials and citizens. The leagues regularly publish official magazines, research bulletins, and special reports that provide officials and citizens with a better understanding of their municipal government. For example, the Texas league publishes a monthly magazine, Town and City; a weekly summary of legislative news when the state legislature is in session; and a Special Inquiry Series on such subjects as comprehensive zoning, the employment of city attorneys in council-manager municipalities, on-the-job injury leave for public employees, and special traffic duty at funerals, weddings, and other events. Research studies have been prepared by the Texas league on such subjects as municipal taxation and debt, refuse collection and disposal practices, and telephone rates and street rentals. In addition, the Texas league issues such publications as a directory of all city officials and a construction manual for building inspectors. This is just an example of the type of informational services provided by leagues. Other state leagues provide equally extensive informational services.

Besides their research activities and wide range of publications, municipal leagues also maintain inquiry-answering services and speakers' bureaus. Through their broad contacts with government officials, the leagues are able to obtain answers to inquiries on various questions concerning government operations and to provide qualified speakers on almost every subject of interest to municipal officials.

(4) Legal and technical assistance

The remaining major function of municipal leagues is that of offering legal and technical assistance and advice on municipal problems. Some of the leagues, particularly those in the South, maintain a technical advisory service which offers assistance in municipal problems that range from accounting systems and reports to personnel administration and utility management. Such technical services are free to the municipalities or available on a cost of service basis.

2. OPERATING PROCEDURES OF MUNICIPAL LEAGUES

Legal authorization

Municipal leagues have been established in a variety of ways. Two leagues (Alaska and Georgia) operate under direct state constitutional provisions where expenditures are authorized for proper public purposes, while other leagues have been granted specific statutory authorization to use public funds for membership in state and national organizations and for attendance of public officials at meetings.

For example, in Iowa, the first state to organize a municipal association in 1898, a statute authorizes cities and towns to pay, out of the general fund, annual dues to the League of Iowa Municipalities. The statute also authorizes Iowa municipalities to pay out of the general fund the delegates' expenses to the annual league convention. Maine, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania are among the other states where leagues operate and collect dues under specific authorization of the legislature.

On the other hand, a few leagues do not operate under direct statutory authorization. In Texas, for instance, the cities proceeded under the assumption that there was no law which would prohibit establishment of a

league.² However, the Texas league calls its assessments "service charges" and the charges have been legally construed as being for consulting services.

No legal authorization was secured from the state for the formation of the league in New Mexico, since the state Constitution prohibits any municipality from making a donation. However, the New Mexico municipalities received a general grant of authority to contract for services rendered, and the league bills a service participation fee to each municipality.

The formation of some leagues is based upon authority granted under general powers to spend funds for proper public purpose. Massachusetts cities and towns, to cite an example, were organized on the basis of a statute which gives municipal officers and employees of any particular department the power to incur expenses "in securing information upon matters in which the city or town may be interested or which may tend to improve the service in such department." However, the Massachusetts municipalities are currently seeking legislation which would grant specific permission to expend public funds for league membership.

In other cases, leagues use as their legal authority decisions of their state supreme court or opinions of their state attorney general. The authority under which the Ohio league operates, to name one instance, results from a ruling of the Ohio Supreme Court in 1951 which held that appropriations for league dues were legal.³ The decision was in contrast to a 1925 opinion of the Ohio Supreme Court which, in effect, was to prohibit payments by municipalities to maintain a municipal association.⁴

²Correspondence with the Texas Municipal League.

³State ex rel McClure, City Manager v. Hagerman, Director of Finance, 155 O.S. 320 (1951).

⁴State ex rel Thomas v. Semple, 112 O.S. 559 (1925).

However, even prior to the 1951 Ohio decision, the Illinois⁵ and Michigan Supreme Courts had ruled that expenditure of public funds for the payment of league dues was proper.⁶

In order for a municipality to join a league, authorization must first be obtained from the municipal legislative body, either in the form of an ordinance or a resolution. In Minnesota, a resolution is submitted to the municipal council as follows: "Resolved that the city (village) of _____ join the League of Minnesota Municipalities and pay the required annual dues in the sum of \$ _____ for the year beginning _____."

Organizational structure

All municipal leagues have constitutions which state how the association is to be organized, who the officers are to be and how elected, when meetings will be held, and other pertinent information. The leagues are formed on a statewide basis and frequently are divided into regions or districts. The California league, as an example, is divided into thirteen regions, each representing a different section of the state, and also into nine functional departments. The latter consists of mayors and councilmen, city attorneys,

⁵ People v. Bunge Brothers Coal Co. (1946).

⁶ The Michigan case, Hays v. City of Kalamazoo, first arose in the Circuit Court of Kalamazoo County, No. 43,464, the court ruling that there was a need for the Michigan Municipal League and that it was within the power of a city to support the league. However, lobbying activities were excepted, the court declaring that the home-rule power could not be "so far stretched as to permit a city to delegate blindly in advance" the power to lobby for it. The league was enjoined from advising legislators, drafting legislation, and appearing before legislative committees. A year later the case reached the Michigan Supreme Court (Hays v. Kalamazoo, 316 Mich. 443, 1947). In a unanimous decision, the Michigan Supreme Court upheld the league's position that a central municipal lobbying agency in the state was justified by the legislature's need for information on matters of concern to municipalities.

finance officers, fire chiefs, health officers, city managers, city planners, public works officers, and recreation and park officials. Each regional and functional division holds periodic meetings and has its own officers who are elected for a one-year term. Action taken by the divisions is directed to the state league by means of resolutions.

The Texas league, similar to the California organization, also is divided into regions and departments. Instead of consisting of officials, as in California, the Texas departments, however, comprise associations of officials such as the City Managers Association, the Association of Mayors, Councilmen, and Commissioners, and the Association of Assessing Officers. Other leagues also make use of regional organizations.

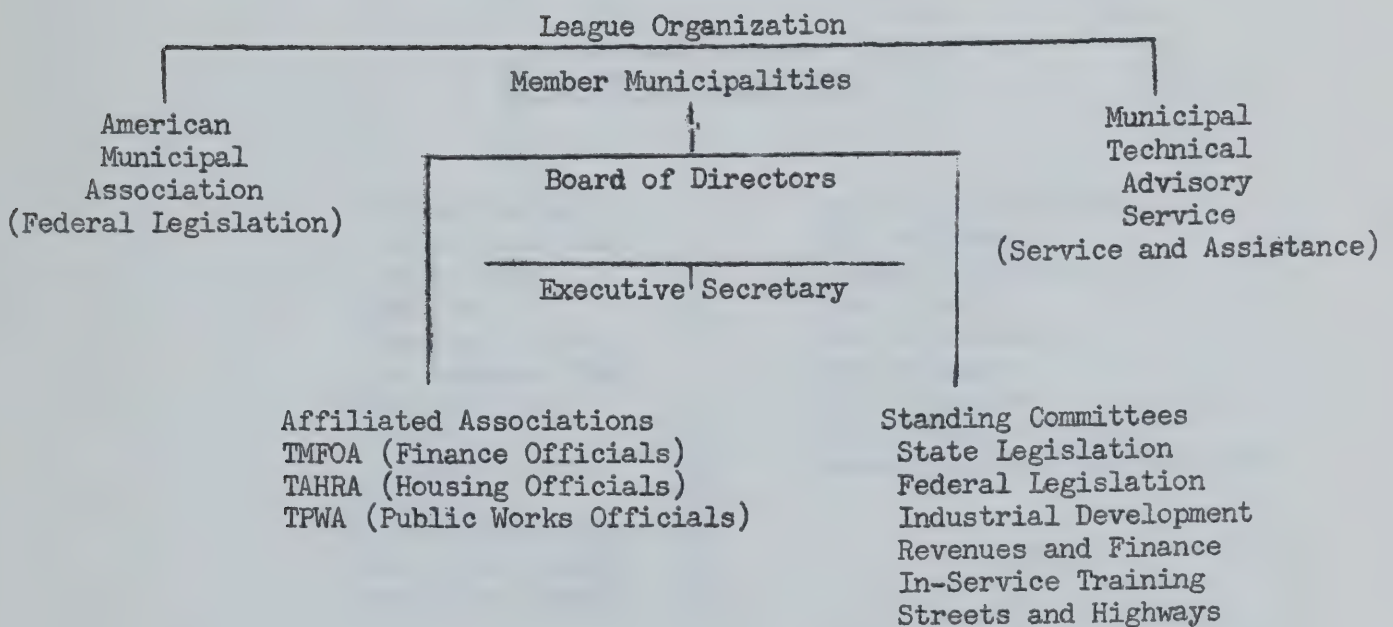
The governing body of the leagues is its board of directors, sometimes called an executive committee or executive board. Membership on the governing board generally consists of the president, vice-presidents, executive director, and a number of trustees. Sometimes the immediate past president also is a member of the board. Except for the executive director, all other board members are elected by the league membership at the annual meeting. Only the trustees and the executive director serve for more than one year--the executive director for an indefinite period, at the pleasure of the board, and the trustees for two or three-year overlapping terms. All officers except the executive director must hold a municipal office at the time of election to office, and no two officers may come from the same municipality. Most leagues prohibit the president from succeeding himself in office.

For illustrations of how leagues are organized, see the charts of the Tennessee and California associations on the next two pages. The Tennessee

league is represented on its board of directors by professional associations and standing committees. The California league, by way of contrast, is divided into regional and functional divisions, with both area and municipal officials represented on its board.

Chart 1

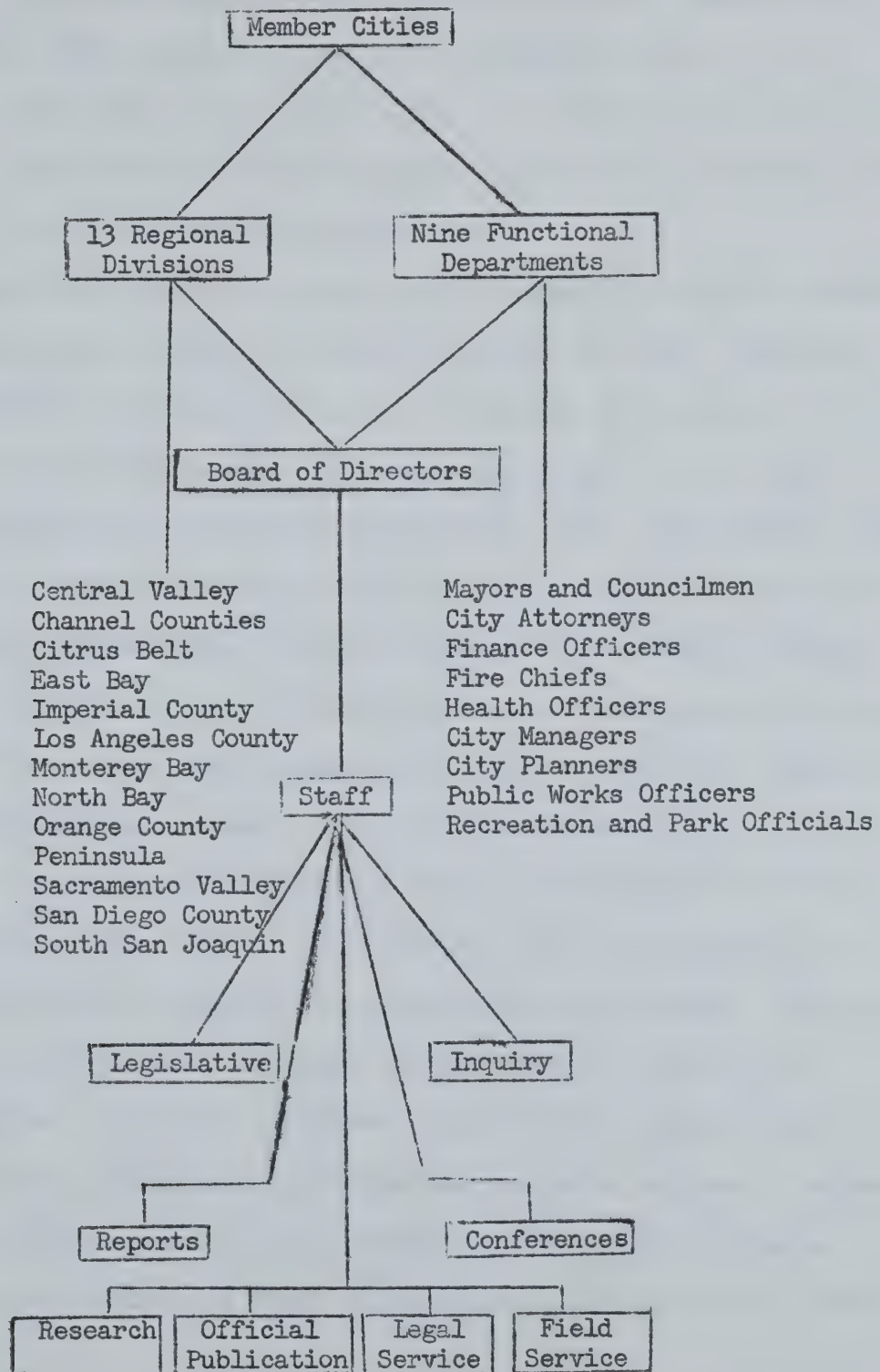
ORGANIZATION OF TENNESSEE MUNICIPAL LEAGUE



Source: Tennessee Municipal League, Cooperation Solves Municipal Problems (Nashville, undated).

Chart 2

ORGANIZATION OF LEAGUE OF CALIFORNIA CITIES



Source: League of California Cities, California Cities Work Together (Berkeley, June, 1952), p. 13.

The board of directors decides all policy matters affecting the league, recommends adoption of the budget at the annual meeting, approves any expenditure, sanctions committee appointments made by the president, and performs other duties similar to those of a legislative body. In most states, the board meets quarterly and also at the time of the league's annual convention. The board in addition may meet on call of the president or upon petition of a specified number of board members.

The general manager of the league is the executive director, sometimes called an executive secretary. The director heads the staff secretariat and is a full-time, paid employee, usually selected by the board of directors at a salary fixed by the board. He manages the affairs of the league--collects fees and dues, conducts correspondence, is in charge of all records and documents, prepares the league budget, submits reports to the board of directors, and performs other duties incidental to the office of manager. Most executive directors must furnish a surety bond in an amount fixed by the board of directors. The premium on the bond is paid out of league funds. As another precautionary measure, all financial reports of the executive director are audited by an accountant selected by the board of directors.

Like the executive director, the working staff of the league also is on a salaried basis and generally is appointed by the director. The size of the league staff varies, depending largely upon the extent of the league's services. In 1960, the Kansas league had the largest staff in the nation--twenty-one employees; California was next with eighteen. Besides the necessary clerical help, league staffs usually include a director of research and publications, a field representative, and one or more attorneys.

Membership

Most leagues have three classes of members, as follows:

1. Regular members, comprising any incorporated municipality such as

...of the League of Nations...
...the board meets quarterly and at the time of the League's annual
...The board in addition may meet on call of the president or upon
...of a specified number of board members.

...general manager of the League is the executive director, sometimes
...a full-time, paid position, usually selected by the board of directors
...the board of directors, the executive director is responsible for the
...the League's day-to-day operations.

...other preparatory measures, all these and reports of the executive
...are submitted by an assistant selected by the board of directors.

...In 1940, the League had the largest staff in the
...the League's history.

...the League's operations.

towns and cities. Special districts, for example, as school or fire districts, sewer authorities, or transit authorities, do not usually belong, although the Texas league permits special districts to participate as associate members. In Pennsylvania, special districts have their own organization, the Pennsylvania Municipal Authorities Association. Municipalities become regular league members by enactment of a resolution by its legislative body authorizing membership and by payment of the annual dues.

2. Associate members, consisting of individuals or organizations interested in municipal government. Associate members usually pay dues and receive publications and services of the league but are not eligible to vote.

3. Honorary members, comprising any individual who has performed distinguished service to the league or for the improvement of municipal government. Honorary membership is extended at the annual meeting by either the board of directors or the league membership itself. Honorary members, as in the case of associate members, have no voting privileges.

A municipality which elects to join a league as a regular member may at a later date cancel its membership by notifying the executive director in writing. Most leagues terminate a municipality's membership if dues for the current calendar year are not paid by a specified date.

All leagues hold an annual meeting for the election of officers and transaction of general business. Conferences, panel discussions, and guest speakers also are usually presented during the annual meetings, and member municipalities are entitled to send as many delegates as desired. However, each municipality generally has only one vote at the meeting. Amendments to the league constitution require a two-thirds vote of the member municipalities.

Besides the annual meeting, the leagues may hold periodic meetings upon call of the board of directors. The special meetings, however, are usually

for a designated purpose, and no business is normally transacted other than that specified.

Dues

Municipal leagues need funds in order to provide services and pay salaries to a paid staff. Financial requirements of the leagues are outlined yearly in a budget usually submitted to the annual meeting for adoption by the member municipalities. The combined income of all state leagues exceeded \$1,000,000 for the first time in 1951, compared with \$421,000 in 1943 and \$171,000 in 1934. In 1960, the combined league budgets passed the \$2,000,000 mark. The California league had the largest budget in 1960--over \$250,000. Other league budgets vary, but at least 18 associations maintain a \$50,000 budget each year.

Revenues are raised by the leagues through annual dues or service charges levied on member municipalities. Each league has its own formula for assessing its members. Maine, for example, has rates ranging from \$40 a year for towns under 500, to \$600 for towns over 30,000, plus \$2.50 per 500 population. Charges in New Jersey, on the other hand, are from \$25 for municipalities under 400 to \$887.50 for cities over 100,000, in addition to \$18.75 for each 10,000 population over 100,000.

The new Massachusetts League of Cities and Towns has set annual dues at .02 per capita for all cities and towns, with a minimum of \$25 and a maximum of \$10,000. These dues are in effect until the Massachusetts league elects an executive board which will establish a new schedule.

By way of contrast, Indiana makes a distinction between cities and towns, even if they are of the same population. Thus a city in Indiana of the fifth class, with a population between 3,000 and 5,000, pays \$225; an Indiana town with the same population pays \$100. Pennsylvania communities

pay a basic sum of \$25 to belong to one of the state's five municipal leagues in addition to \$16 per full thousand population. The maximum charged for large cities in Pennsylvania is \$15,000.

The following table shows the general range of dues established by most leagues for municipalities under 175,000 population:

Table 1

LEAGUE DUES IN MUNICIPALITIES UNDER 175,000 POPULATION⁷

Population Group...	Range of Dues (\$)
Under 2,000	20-200
2,000-5,000	65-225
5,000-10,000	104-275
10,000-30,000	169-450
30,000-50,000	405-600
50,000-100,000	624-1,109
100,000-175,000	1,117-2,500

3. RELATIONSHIP OF MUNICIPAL ASSOCIATIONS TO OTHER GROUPS

The State

Municipal leagues bear a singular relationship to the state. Municipalities as governmental units are established by the state and derive their powers and functions from state authority. However, as corporations, municipalities are at the same time protected by the United States Constitution's guarantees of the right of association and the right to petition the government.

⁷ Compiled from Dues and Service Charges of the State League of Municipalities (Chicago, American Municipal Association, July, 1960, 7 pp.). Dues schedules for cities over 175,000 population are not listed because no Connecticut municipality is over that size.

for large cities in Pennsylvania is \$15,000.

The following table shows the general range of dues established by most municipalities under 175,000 population:

Range of dues (\$)	Group
20-300	Under 2,000
	2,000-5,000
	5,000-10,000
	10,000-20,000
400-500	20,000-30,000
	30,000-40,000
1,117-2,500	100,000-175,000

Municipalities bear a singular relationship to the state. Municipalities as governmental units are established by the state and derive their powers and functions from state authority. However, as corporations, municipalities are at the same time protected by the United States Constitution's guarantee of the right of association and the right to petition the government.

The following table shows the range of dues established by most municipalities under 175,000 population are not listed because no dues were reported in 1960.

In many instances, the states have assisted the municipalities in forming an association by passing legislation permitting the local governments to pay dues, although occasionally in the past a few states have attempted to prohibit municipalities from giving financial support to leagues. The action of the New Hampshire Governor in vetoing legislation that would have authorized expenditures to the New Hampshire Municipal Association is such an instance.⁸

Today the right of municipalities to support an association is rarely an issue,⁹ and the leagues work closely with state agencies in many states. The Tennessee Municipal League, for example, was instrumental in establishing the Municipal Technical Advisory Service, a state agency which offers free advisory assistance in municipal problems. In other places, state agencies frequently make use of the informational and educational services offered by the leagues and cooperate with them on special projects.

University Research Bureaus

Most leagues maintain an informal but close relationship with their state university undertaking projects on a joint basis with university research bureaus and frequently publishing reports under their joint sponsorship. Five states (Wyoming, Washington, Minnesota, Oregon, Tennessee, and Maryland) have developed a direct tie-in with university research bureaus.

⁸ In Ohio, the Governor had similarly vetoed legislation that would have authorized payments to the Ohio league. The Ohio league for years had a troubled existence because of lack of financial support until 1951, when the Ohio Supreme Court ruled on the subject of municipal appropriations to organizations in a case dealing with the right of the city of Dayton to use public funds for membership dues in the Municipal Finance Officers Association of Ohio. See p. 10, supra.

⁹ In Connecticut, the statutes permit municipalities to pay for the attendance of assessors and other specified officials at annual conferences.

In Wyoming, for example, the municipalities requested the state university to create an office which would serve as headquarters of the municipal association. The precedent for such a request was in the Agricultural Extension Services offered by land-grant colleges and by the granting of state funds to provide for county agents. The board of trustees of the University of Wyoming thus created an office at the university without requesting legal authority prior to organizing the association.

In two other states, Oregon and Minnesota, the league's executive secretary is also director of the university's municipal research bureau and, as explained by an observer, it is difficult to tell where the one staff ends and the other begins. League headquarters in both states, as in the case of the Wyoming association, are maintained at the universities, and both university and league staffs perform the same type of work.

Tennessee and Maryland have established a Municipal Technical Advisory Service and in both states the league has a measure of control through membership on the M.T.A.S. board of directors. Headquarters of the Maryland Municipal League are maintained at the university. Offices of the Association of Washington Cities also are established at the state university.

Where leagues have a connection with universities, the leagues' legislative activities generally are handled separately by league personnel. The reputation of the university research bureaus apparently has not suffered by such working arrangements with municipal leagues, and frequently the universities have been able to increase their research output and to raise the standards of municipal administration more than could have been achieved without such close association.

American Municipal Association

The American Municipal Association, a national federation of the state

leagues, was organized in 1924 to perform at the federal level the functions which the leagues might not be able to accomplish individually. The A.M.A. works toward obtaining federal legislation which would benefit municipalities, engages in research and offers informational services on municipal problems that have national implications, and in other ways seeks to strengthen and improve municipal government and administration.

All municipal leagues now in existence are members of the A.M.A. In addition, direct A.M.A. membership is open to cities over 50,000 population. Where there are only a few cities of this population group in a state, the first ten cities in rank order of population are eligible for direct membership as well as all state capitals. In Connecticut, such direct membership is held by New Haven and some of the other large cities, and the Mayor of New Haven currently is a member of the association's executive committee. Like the municipal leagues, cities which belong to the A.M.A. are entitled to all services of the association. However, each member city must also belong to its state league, if one exists.

Headquarters of the A.M.A. are located in Chicago, in the building which houses other government associations euphemistically called the "1313" Group. The A.M.A. also maintains an office in Washington, D.C., enabling the association to have direct participation in such national affairs as those relating to urban renewal, civil defense, air pollution control, highways, and airports. At the same time, the association cooperates with other national organizations in promoting action of benefit to municipalities. In March of 1961, for example, A.M.A. officials met with representatives of the International City Managers' Association and the National Board of Fire Underwriters to work on revision of the National Board of Fire Underwriters' Grading Schedule, a measure used in determining a municipality's position on fire defenses and physical conditions.

The A.M.A. also encourages international cooperation between municipalities by administering "town affiliations," whereby cities in the United States join with communities in other countries to carry out programs of friendship. Two Connecticut towns are participating in this program, Darien, affiliated with a community in India, and Westport, which has established connections with a city in France. Two other Connecticut municipalities, Hartford and West Hartford, are working toward similar affiliations with cities overseas.

Membership in the A.M.A. is obtained by action of a municipal league's executive committee. League membership dues in the association consist of a basic fee of \$300 plus $3\frac{1}{2}$ percent of the league's budget. Dues for direct member cities range from \$50 for cities under 10,000 population to \$500 for cities between 100,000 and 150,000. The maximum assessment is \$4000 for cities over 5,000,000. In addition, the cities pay dues to their state municipal league.

Like its member municipal leagues, the A.M.A. holds an annual convention for the entire membership and periodic special committee meetings in various sections of the country. In meetings requiring the association's official decision, each league is entitled to ten votes, except where there are two or more member leagues in one state, as in Pennsylvania with its five municipal associations. In such cases, all member leagues in one state are entitled to a total of ten votes. Each member city of the A.M.A. is entitled to one vote. The governing body of the A.M.A. is its executive committee, consisting of the president, vice president, immediate past president, and twenty elected members. An executive director appointed by the executive committee manages the affairs of the association.

Professional organizations

Municipal leagues do not replace professional government organizations in a state. On the contrary, they serve as coordinating agent and clearing-house for professional associations, and achieve many results which individual associations otherwise may not have been able to accomplish.

Traditionally, leagues have recognized the importance of professional organizations in promoting the advancement of professional knowledge among municipal officials, and part of the leagues' goals have been directed toward raising administrative standards of officials. This has been accomplished through the publication of manuals and research studies and by holding in-service training classes and seminars for municipal officials. A major portion of the annual conventions held by leagues is turned over to conferences and lectures where public officials not only hear talks by leading figures in various administrative fields, but may also exchange ideas with each other in regard to the improvement of municipal administration.

The leagues give representation to professional associations in a variety of ways. The California and Texas leagues, by way of example, have places on their board of directors for such officials as city managers, assessors, attorneys, public works officers, and city planners. Other leagues, such as those in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and New Jersey, have subsidiary sections for associations of municipal officials and employees. Professional organizations also benefit from league membership in the American Municipal Association and from league support of proposed legislation that would aid various municipal professions.

4. HOW CONNECTICUT MUNICIPALITIES WOULD BENEFIT FROM A MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

What would Connecticut's 169 towns and cities stand to gain by making

a fourth attempt at establishing a municipal league?

That answer depends largely upon how well such a league would function, who its leaders were, and the kind of program it undertook.

The reasons why a municipal league failed to gain a permanent foothold in previous years still exist. The boundaries of Connecticut have not been increased--the state is still small enough to permit municipal officials to travel to the capital in one day and make their needs known to the state legislature. There still are agencies, public and private, which perform many of the research functions of municipal leagues.

Yet there are problems in local government which have not been solved despite the fact that municipal officials have access to the ears of legislators and to the volumes published by independent research agencies. These problems are likely to increase, rather than diminish, in the wake of increased pressures upon local governments due to population strains, technological changes, and public acceptance of the view that governments must plan for the future no less than do private industries. Typical of such problems facing municipalities today is how to make the most out of funds granted by the federal government. Municipalities as never before are now receiving federal aid for local projects. They hire consultants and draft plans but do not know how to put the plans into effect. A municipal league could offer technical advice that would provide guidance in cases such as this.

In the area of informational and educational services, a municipal league could present publications of a more technical nature than are available now through the present Connecticut research agencies. Massachusetts, for example, has research facilities in the form of the Bureau of Government Research at the University of Massachusetts, the Seminar Research Bureau of Boston College, the Boston Municipal Research Bureau, the Massachusetts Federation of Taxpayers Associations, the Greater Boston Economic Study

Committee, and the Greater Boston Chamber of Commerce. Despite such proliferation of research agencies, there still was a demand in Massachusetts for an association that would serve the needs of municipalities on a state-wide basis.

The problems of Connecticut municipalities require solutions that would benefit the entire state. Such solutions can be found better through concerted effort on the part of all communities, instead of sporadic action by individual areas, each working in isolation from its neighboring community and depending upon the fragmentized services of different research agencies for information and guidance.

If no man is an island, no community is either. Municipal cooperation is one of the needs of Connecticut's towns and cities in the 1960's; such cooperation can be obtained in no better way than through permanent association.

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LEGISLATION PASSED BY THE 1961 CONNECTICUT GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF INTEREST TO MUNICIPALITIES

Prepared By

Rosaline Levenson
Research Assistant
Institute of Public Service

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Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut
Storrs, Connecticut

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LEGISLATION PASSED BY THE 1961 CONNECTICUT GENERAL ASSEMBLY
OF INTEREST TO MUNICIPALITIES

Prepared by Rosaline Levenson, Research Assistant*
Institute of Public Service, The University of Connecticut

More than 1,000 legislative bills in the form of special and public acts, as well as House and Senate resolutions, were enacted into law by the 1961 Connecticut General Assembly. Following is a summarization of the more important bills of interest to Connecticut municipalities which were adopted by the General Assembly. The summarization primarily covers public acts, but includes special acts and resolutions where the subject is of concern to all towns and cities. Because of space limitations, public and special acts pertaining to only one municipality are excluded.

The summarization is divided into the following subjects: Courts, Education, Elections, Highways, Intergovernmental Cooperation, Motor Vehicles, Planning and Redevelopment, Police and Firemen, Special Studies, Taxation, Teachers, Town Officials, Towns, Welfare, and Constitutional Amendments. At the end of the summarization, bills of interest to municipalities which were vetoed by the Governor are listed.

Abbreviations used in the summarization represent the following forms of legislation: PA for Public Act, SA for Special Act, HR for House Resolutions, SJR for Senate Joint Resolution, and SB for Senate Bill.

Courts

PA 1 - Appropriates \$30,000 for state reimbursement for the maintenance and feeding of prisoners detained for arraignment or trial by Circuit Court.

*Miss Levenson presents an analysis of the 1961 legislation in the September issue of Connecticut Government, a newsletter published by the Institute of Public Service.

PA 38 - Authorizes Circuit Court judge to fix bond when court is not in session.

PA 214 - Authorizes gambling money and prizes seized according to law to become state property to help defray the costs of the Circuit Courts. Formerly, the money and prizes were divided equally between state and towns, which no longer operate municipal courts.

PA 352 - Extends jurisdiction of Circuit Court to cases punishable by fine of not more than \$1,000, instead of \$500, except in prosecutions relating to overweight motor vehicle cases, where the Circuit Court may impose penalties as provided by Section 14-267 of the General Statutes. Changes procedure in criminal jurisdiction of the Circuit Court and amends P.A. 78 relating to jurisdiction in overweight motor vehicle cases.

PA 517 - Authorizes judge of the Circuit Court instead of a justice of the peace to issue warrant for collection due on tax bill. Makes other changes in duties of trial justice.

PA 566 - Provides that towns pay for maintenance and feeding of prisoners until arraignment in Circuit Court takes place, at which time costs will be borne by the state.

Education

PA 40 - Substitutes term secondary school for high school in act authorizing grants to towns operating vocational agriculture centers.

PA 63 - Requires superintendent of schools instead of secretary of board of education to submit statement to state board of education on the cost of educating physically-handicapped pupils. Makes superintendent of schools instead of board of education responsible for ordering transportation for pupils in town which does not maintain a high school.

PA 86 - Provides, for purpose of apportionment, that school session of at least two hours but less than four hours of actual school work may be

counted as half a school day and that, in event of dismissal of school because of weather conditions, completion of the morning session may be considered as a school day.

PA 114 - Regulates payment of indebtedness of regional school districts.

PA 208 - Permits towns to operate summer classes on a fee basis.

PA 279 - Eliminates use of semaphore signal on school busses.

PA 392 - Prohibits towns from providing bus transportation for students attending a technical institute.

PA 512 - Increases grants for adult education from 6 cents to 12 cents per pupil. Eliminates state aid for adult recreational activities unless the activities are for handicapped or aged persons.

PA 525 - Appropriates \$1,400,000 to help finance bus transportation for elementary school children. Provides that any municipality transporting children to and from town-maintained elementary schools, including kindergartens, shall be reimbursed for 50 per cent of the cost, not to exceed an average of \$20 per pupil annually. In the past, not all towns received state aid for elementary school transportation. Only towns in certain population categories were eligible for state reimbursement for one-half the cost of such transportation. For purposes of reimbursement, the towns were classified according to their average tax receipts. The 1961 legislation repeals provisions of the General Statutes (Sections 10-269 to 273) relating to reimbursement on the basis of population and classification according to tax receipts.

PA 549 - Grants \$150 annually to each town, on a matching fund basis from the towns, for purchase of school reference and supplemental books.

PA 571 - Increases general school aid by \$20 per pupil, plus an additional sum of \$7.50 per pupil to communities undergoing enrollment increases over the past ten years. Cost of these new education grants will total \$23,000,000. The formula to be used for the grants is as follows:

\$161 per pupil for the first 100 pupils; \$151 for the second 100; \$141 for the third 100; \$131 for the fourth 100; \$121 for the fifth 100; \$111 for the sixth 100; and \$96 for each pupil in excess of 100.

PA 576 - Makes changes in programs and services for children requiring special education.

Elections

PA 47 - Authorizes town clerk to provide the Secretary of State with the following information: total number of names on the registry list and total number of voting machines in the town. The information is to be submitted during the first week of February in each year on forms provided by the Secretary of State. If the number of voting machines is less than the number required by law, an explanation of the discrepancy is to be included in the report.

PA 61 - Requires registrars of voters to send notice to elector informing him the reason for removal of his name from the registry list and the voting privileges to which he may be entitled.

PA 70 - Forbids the holding of additional enrollment sessions for making voters during the 21 days preceding a primary or caucus.

PA 71 - Requires each town to provide registrars of voters with office space, supplies, and equipment, including facilities for the safe storage of the registrars' official records.

PA 72 - Changes from 42 to 46 days the time required prior to primary when a legal notice announcing the primary is published in a newspaper with general circulation.

PA 73 - Permits restoration to registry list of person whose qualification of residence becomes effective and who applies for the restoration on or prior to the last week day before the day of the regular election.

PA 74 - Requires that statement signed by applicant for admission as elector to be delivered to registrar of voters and kept by latter as public record in a safe depository.

PA 105 - Provides that no person shall be deemed to have lost his residence in a municipality by reason of absence because of imprisonment on conviction of a crime.

PA 109 - Changes from June to August the month in which registrars of voters must submit to the Secretary of the State the total number of electors enrolled in the municipality.

PA 119 - Permits person who is being challenged on eligibility to vote at primary to prove his identity by testimony, under oath, of an elector qualified to vote in the primary.

PA 144 - Permits certificate from physician to constitute statement in cases where permanently physically-disabled persons are unable to appear in person for admission as elector.

PA 147 - Permits endorsement of party candidates by town committee as a whole in municipality where the town committee is elected at large and is the endorsing authority.

PA 148 - Requires political party in a municipality which has not filed local party rules to be subject to the party's state rules until local party rules are filed.

PA 202 - Changes from four to five weeks prior to day of election for municipal offices as time in which nominations for candidates must be made. Changes from 25 to 32 days prior to election for municipal offices as time in which list of nominees must be submitted to the Secretary of the State.

PA 207 - Requires oath to be taken by officials appointed to serve in polling place in election or primary.

PA 215 - Establishes procedure for qualified, permanently-disabled person to have his name restored to the registry list.

PA 230 - Establishes procedure for ballot labels in primary in case of vacancy in candidacy occurring after labels have been prepared.

PA 259 - Establishes procedure in event all but one of the candidates in election should die, withdraw their names, or for any reason become disqualified to hold office.

PA 274 - Redefines enrollment list of political party.

PA 301 - Prohibits sale of liquor on election day only during hours of voting.

PA 374 - Requires presidential electors to vote for candidates to whom they are pledged.

PA 395 - Changes time in which local question must be approved for submission to electors and voted upon by absentee ballot from four weeks to sixty days prior to the election.

PA 396 - Changes time in which local question must be approved for submission to electors from thirty-five to sixty days prior to the election, unless otherwise specifically provided by the General Statutes.

PA 398 - Requires that polling places be designated at least 31 days prior to state election and not changed within this period except in cases where a polling place has been rendered unusable.

PA 431 - Permits blind elector to be accompanied into the voting machine booth by person of his own choice and register the blind elector's vote upon the machine as directed by the blind elector.

PA 517 - Provides that application form for admission of serviceman as elector in absentia be mailed to the town clerk separately from the absentee ballot.

Highways

PA 162 - Authorizes State Highway Commissioner to enter into written agreements with owners of property purchased or condemned for highway

purposes. Such agreements are to be executed in the manner required for deeds and recorded with the town clerk in the town in which the land is located.

PA 412 - Permits towns to continue appropriations to improvement associations for repair or maintenance of roads.

PA 530 - Provides for state reimbursement to municipality for damage to municipally-maintained highway or bridge incurred in construction of a limited access highway.

PA 603 - Reallocates town aid funds for highway purposes and reclassifies the state highway system. Highways throughout the state are to be classified according to state or local responsibility, and local roads added to the state's program will be brought up to state standards.

PA 605 - Provides \$150,000,000 in funds for specific highway purposes.

Intergovernmental Cooperation

PA 239 - Permits local police officers to pursue offenders into any part of the state outside their precinct in order to effect an arrest and to return the arrested person to the town in which the offense was committed.

PA 288 - Permits municipalities to enter into agreement with a state institution regarding the use of fire fighting equipment and the services of state personnel who are members of an institutional fire brigade.

PA 345 - Permits two or more towns, by vote of their legislative bodies, to form a district for administration of general assistance, and to make agreements as to employment of personnel, payment of expenses, and other matters relevant to operation of the district. Authorizes the State Welfare Commissioner to establish uniform standards concerning the granting of general assistance by the towns, including minimum standards for investigation of eligibility and necessary procedures for record-keeping and other office practices.

PA 386 - Permits two or more contiguous towns, by action of their legislative bodies, to provide and maintain quarters necessary for holding sessions of the Circuit Court. Expenses for such quarters are to be apportioned to the towns as agreed by the legislative bodies.

PA 391 - Permits towns to form district boards of health to exercise duties relating to public health prior to the establishment of district departments of health, already permitted by the General Statutes.

PA 407 - Permits state employees who are volunteer firemen to be called out in case of fire during the employees' working hours, without loss of pay or leave privileges.

PA 429 - Permits municipalities to enter into an interlocal agreement with public agencies of Connecticut or other states in order to provide services and programs in such areas as water, garbage collection, and the establishment of airports.

PA 507 - Permits municipalities to establish transit districts and take over operation of bus transportation if privately-owned lines fail to provide satisfactory service.

PA 544 - Permits towns to employ jointly a superintendent of schools.

Motor Vehicles

PA 33 - Requires driver in motor vehicle accident to file report when accident occurs on off-street public parking area as well as on highway.

PA 186 - Eliminates provision whereby one-third of fine payments for violation of motor vehicle laws are remitted to towns where the violation occurred.

PA 233 - Permits person to transfer unexpired registration to another motor vehicle owned by him upon payment of fee and makes changes in procedure concerning schedules for staggered system of motor vehicle registration renewals.

Planning and Redevelopment

PA 27 - Broadens functions of the Connecticut Development Commission by authorizing it to assist in the formation of and to offer technical assistance to any municipal planning, zoning, development, and industrial or redeveloping agency or commission, or regional planning or development and industrial agency or commission. Adds the following to the purposes of the Development Commission: Application of the principle of long-range capital improvement programming, renewal of substandard, obsolescent, and blighted areas, and the appropriate development of land in the municipalities and regions of the state.

PA 224 - Authorizes member of municipal redevelopment agency, when appointed, to serve until successor is appointed and has qualified.

PA 226 - Increases membership on the Connecticut Development Commission from eleven to twelve members.

PA 231 - Changes procedure of taking property by redevelopment agency.

PA 253 - Permits appointment of three alternate members of zoning boards of appeals.

PA 270 - Authorizes rehabilitation of beach erosion control projects subjected to unusual and unanticipated hurricane and storm damages to be paid from the accrued interest and premiums or from the sale of bonds and notes in the same manner as other obligations of the state.

PA 271 - Provides for election or appointment of alternates to zoning board of appeals.

PA 290 - Permits payment by governmental agencies for property taken in eminent domain proceedings to be made in annual installments, provided the sale price exceeds \$3,000 and no interest is payable on the unpaid balance.

PA 294 - Makes void any vote by municipality to take or acquire real estate if within six months after such vote the municipality cannot agree

with the owner on the amount to be paid.

PA 310 - Permits municipality to establish conservation commission for development and conservation of natural resources, including water.

PA 313 - Changes definition of metropolitan area, for purpose of forming a metropolitan district, as one in which there is a "central city" having a population of 25,000 instead of 50,000.

PA 387 - Permits condemning authority, upon acquiring less than the total amount of a single unit of contiguous property, to obtain a zoning variance for remaining portion of the property, if it does not conform to the area requirements of existing zoning regulations. The condemning authority will obtain the zoning variance from the zoning board of appeals before occupying any of the condemned portion of the property.

PA 413 - Permits committee of three disinterested persons to be appointed in disputes arising over condemnation of land whenever the parties agree by stipulation filed with the Superior Court or a judge of the court.

PA 430 - Permits municipality to establish historic districts.

PA 469 - Removes application to municipal government in procedures governing relocation or removal of public service facilities from streets closed as part of a redevelopment project.

PA 508 - Makes changes in authorization of bonds for elderly persons' housing projects and amends statutes regarding such projects.

PA 546 - Permits regional planning agency to make advisory report when zoning change is proposed within 500 feet of boundary of another municipality in area of the planning agency.

PA 547 - Permits regional planning agency to make advisory report when land subdivision is planned in area covering two or more municipalities served by planning agency.

PA 570 - Permits regulations enacted by local zoning commission pursuant to Section 7-148 of the General Statutes, 1959 Supplement, to have the same

effect and application as an ordinance enacted pursuant to the section.

PA 588 - Permits municipality to conserve open areas within its boundaries for preservation of historic sites, protection of water supply, and promotion of urban or suburban development, among other things.

PA 594 - Appropriates \$25,000,000 for municipal urban renewal projects. The state will loan one-sixth of the total cost of a local urban renewal program. The town receiving the aid will be required to pay the state out of increased tax revenues realized from the renewal project. Town payments to the state must be made annually, beginning seven years after the state loan is made.

Police and Firemen

PA 131 - Grants firemen power to order any person from the vicinity of a fire upon threat of fine of not more than \$50 or imprisonment of not more than seven days, or both.

PA 330 - Provides that any health impairment resulting in death or disability to paid police or firemen who passed physical examination on entry into service shall be presumed to have been suffered in line of duty.

PA 355 - Abolishes municipality's liability for fireman in injury incurred by fellow employee while both are engaged in the performance of their duties, provided the injured fireman is covered by workmen's compensation.

PA 444 - Permits appointment of up to 12 fire policemen in a municipality to perform duties of special constables such as traffic regulation.

PA 550 - Authorizes state fire marshal to pay to each volunteer fire company for every call to which it responds on parkways or expressways.

PA 586 - Authorizes proceeds from public auction of articles recovered by police departments to be deposited in municipality's general fund, where such exists.

PA 606 - Increases number of resident state policemen from 30 to 36.

Special Studies

SA 316 - Authorizes establishment of state commission to study the impact of mobile home parks on local public health, zoning, and taxing practices, and to recommend needed legislation to the General Assembly in 1963.

SA 368 - Authorizes State Tax Commissioner to make study of assessments in all the towns and cities and to prepare an equalized grand list for each municipality. The Tax Commissioner is to determine for each town and city the relationship of the assessed valuation of properties, as shown on the last completed grand list, to the fair market value of the properties, as determined from evidence of sales of similar properties or other evidences of value. On the basis of percentages established, the Tax Commissioner must prepare a listing of the adjusted grand list in each town to show what the list would be if the properties were listed at fair market value. He will not, however, make changes in the assessment procedures of any town. The adjusted grand list must be submitted to the Legislative Council and the General Assembly's Interim Committee on Education by June 1, 1962. It will be used by the committee to prepare a plan of state aid for education that will be presented to the 1963 General Assembly. The state aid for education plan is to include provisions for special grants to towns designed to equalize the towns' tax efforts in support of a foundation program of education. The sum of \$75,000 was appropriated to the Tax Commissioner to prepare the study and the equalized grand lists.

SA 414 - Authorizes survey of Connecticut's entire tax structure and rates together with recommendations for change in order to bring about more equality in the program. Appropriates \$25,000 for the report as part of the supplemental appropriation made for personal administration in the Office of

Finance and Control. The report is to be undertaken by a tax expert who will be chosen by a bi-partisan committee of state and legislative officials. The expert will comprise a one-man tax study commission and report his recommendations for changes in the state's tax program by December 1, 1962.

SA 416 - Authorizes establishment of state commission to study revision of state welfare laws and to make a report with recommendations to the Governor in 1964.

HR 70 - Authorizes Legislative Council to make study of valuation of state property for payment of grants to towns in lieu of taxes, as proposed in House Bill 2749. Purpose of the bill is to establish simplified uniform methods of land valuation for state grants to towns and to allow the use of an alternative method, based upon valuation of state buildings, at the town's option.

SJR 80 - Authorizes Legislative Council to study proposed legislation that calls for complete indexing of land records in the town clerk's office. The proposed legislation provides that each town shall make available, not later than October 1, 1966, an alphabetical index of the land records filed in the town clerk's office during the years 1900 to 1960.

SJR 82 - Authorizes Legislative Council to study Senate Bill 975, proposing that towns be permitted to establish collective bargaining for municipal employees. The bill would enable a municipality to place its employees under the State Labor Relations Act and to establish collective bargaining practices on vote of the town's legislative body or by vote of the electorate on petition of the voters. If voted upon, municipal employees would have the right to collective bargaining through representatives of their own choice. Strikes or work stoppages would not be permitted, however.

Taxation

PA 11 - Permits tax exemption on gross earnings of railroads in the state

provided that certificate of eligibility for exemption is filed with the Governor by the Public Utilities Commission, accompanied by fee of \$20 with filing of statement to the State Tax Commissioner.

PA 13 - Changes wording in tax collector's deed form.

PA 24 - Authorizes assessors to issue certificate of correction removing tangible personal property from list of person when such property was not taxable, or adding property to list of another person, where applicable.

PA 80 - Exempts sale of draft horses from the education, welfare, and public health tax.

PA 89 - Eliminates time limit provisions of tax relief extended to motor bus companies.

PA 102 - Permits tax refund to property owner who has been issued a certificate of correction.

PA 221 - Defines blindness for tax exemption purposes as including reduction in vision so that the central visual acuity does not exceed 20/200 in the better eye with correcting lenses.

PA 235 - Extends property tax exemption to Connecticut nonprofit camps or recreational facility for charitable purposes, provided that at least 75 per cent of the beneficiaries were bona fide residents of the state at time of use.

PA 245 - Permits exemption from taxation of improvements on landing area of privately-owned airport, if a majority of town electors approve at town meeting or in election, and provided the owner shall grant free use of area to the public for the landing, taking off, and taxiing of aircraft.

PA 342 - Eliminates 90-day length of service requirement for World War I veterans entitled to property tax exemption.

PA 347 - Adds agricultural lands to non-exempt property that must be listed and is liable to taxation.

PA 367 - Provides that property acquired between assessment dates by tax exempt organization shall first become exempt on the tax list next succeeding date of acquisition.

PA 445 - Permits municipality to collect monthly fee in lieu of property tax on mobile homes, except in cases where the mobile home is in the municipality on the annual assessment day and included in the grand list.

PA 477 - Extends tax exemption of poultry, livestock, and farm machinery to corporation if a majority of the stock is held by members of a family actively engaged in farm operations.

PA 484 - Authorizes tax collector's report on uncollected taxes be filed with the town clerk within sixty days of the end of the fiscal year, in lieu of inclusion in the annual town report. Permits tax collector's statement of tax refunds be filed with the town clerk or published in the annual town report.

PA 499 - Provides that the amount of state grants to municipalities in lieu of taxes be less than the amount paid by the state in the preceding year.

PA 515 - Increases from \$150,000 to \$200,000 the average annual receipts a municipality may be permitted from property taxation and still qualify for low-cost audits of town books by the State Tax Commissioner.

Teachers

PA 371 - Increases from \$1200 to \$1800 the amount of money which retired teachers may earn where compensation is paid out of public funds appropriated for school purposes.

PA 388 - Changes the time in which persons under the teachers' retirement system may pay into the system to cover the period served in the state service. The time permitted is five years, instead of two, after date of employment or reemployment as teacher in the public schools, or five years after October 1, 1961, whichever is later.

PA 389 - Makes changes in survivors' options on death of member of the teachers' retirement association.

PA 397 - Permits member of teachers' retirement association who elected a co-participant designation to withdraw such election.

PA 427 - Amends definition of teacher in teachers' retirement system.

PA 480 - Requires board of education, within five days after receipt of teacher's written request, to notify the teacher why his or her contract was not renewed. Authorizes transcript of proceedings at hearing relating to termination of a teacher's contract be furnished the teacher without cost.

PA 485 - Defines creditable years of service for purposes of the teachers' retirement system.

PA 488 - Clarifies retirement qualifications in the teachers' retirement system.

PA 556 - Makes changes in continuing contracts of teachers.

PA 562 - Permits teachers to join or refuse to join any organization for professional or economic improvement.

Town Officials

PA 15 - Abolishes office of grand juror. Formerly, each town elected six grand jurors.

PA 54 - Requires that boards of finance file copies of the minutes and records of their meetings with the town clerk within one week, instead of two weeks, of the meeting.

PA 138 - Raises fee for duplicate hunting, fishing, and trapping license from 25 cents to \$1.35. Permits town clerk to receive 35 cents from the total fee.

PA 165 - Includes assistant town clerks among officers eligible to administer oaths.

PA 182 - Gives assistant town clerks power to perform duties of town clerk in latter's absence.

PA 198 - Eliminates restriction that conferences for town clerks and registrars of voters called by the Secretary of the State must be statewide.

PA 517* - Provides that one-third of town board of library directors shall serve for term of three years from one year of their election.

PA 517*- Removes restriction that town treasurer and town clerk may not hold office of trial justice during the same official year.

PA 517* - Permits increase in town clerk's fee for making certified copies of documents from 50 cents to \$1 for the first page and from 25 to 50 cents for each additional page.

PA 572 - Permits increase in town clerk's fees from \$1 to \$2 for recording deeds and documents of not more than 325 words.

Towns

PA 28 - Changes safety regulations of show or exhibition presented in tent or other portable shelter.

PA 66 - Requires towns to deposit copy of compilation of town and city ordinances in Office of the Secretary of State, the state library, each bar library of the county in which the municipality is located, and each courthouse library of the circuit court in the circuit in which such municipality is located.

PA 99 - Makes changes in schoolhouse construction requirements.

PA 115 - Permits four classes of raffles, instead of three, and allows town to retain \$5 of the fee charged for fourth class permit.

PA 227 - Requires certificate of death in cases of cremation to be filed with the registrar of vital statistics for the town in which the person died

* PA 517 contains 134 sections and makes corrections in various statutes.

and changes procedure in the handling of cremation certificates.

PA 238 - Permits horse shows to be held Sundays on application to selectmen, mayor, or warden.

PA 281 - Changes the deadline for compiling and publishing town and city ordinances and special acts from December 31, 1960, to June 1, 1962. Provides that if any municipality fails to comply with provisions of the act, the Secretary of the State shall compile and publish the ordinances, with the municipality to bear the cost. The publication and all supplements must be made available for public sale at a reasonable cost.

PA 287 - Makes amendment to the state building code that is adopted by the Public Works Commissioner applicable to municipality which has adopted the code.

PA 303 - Increases from \$150,000 to \$250,000 the amount of tax receipts of each town which the State Tax Commissioner must certify to the Commissioner of Health for purpose of allocating state aid to towns for public health nursing service.

PA 351 - Permits bingo games, raffles, and bazaars at agricultural fairs.

PA 375 - Abolishes municipality's liability for employee in injury caused by fellow employee while both are engaged in the performance of their duties, provided the injured employee is covered by workmen's compensation.

PA 382 - Permits coin-operated laundries to be open on Sunday.

PA 409 - Provides that only one additional appropriation may be made for any one department in a town without town meeting approval.

PA 466 - Eliminates requirement that notice of bond or note sale by municipality must be published in a newspaper having circulation within the municipality.

PA 506 - Requires registration and regulation of all motor boats over five horsepower. Authorizes town clerk to keep record of registration.

Provides that towns which incur expenses in enforcement of registration shall receive reimbursement from the state.

PA 521 - Tightens the "right to know" law by requiring that within 15 days of a request for inspection of minutes of its meetings, any public body such as a board or commission which refuses to make public its minutes must put such refusal in writing. Changes the court procedure for appeals cases in such instances from Court of Common Pleas to the Circuit Court and gives the appeal priority over other cases.

PA 593 - Provides for settling questions at town meeting in accordance with standard parliamentary practice, and permits towns to adopt rules of order for the conduct of their meetings. In the past, questions arising at town meetings were decided by majority vote of qualified voters present and voting, or, when there was an equal vote, by the moderator if he had not already voted.

Welfare

PA 110 - Extends eligibility for public housing to any person who has been certified by the Social Security Board as being totally disabled under the federal Social Security Act.

PA 134 - Permits person eligible for old age assistance to be eligible also for medical institutional care for a period of 42 days.

PA 321 - Changes town's reimbursement to the state in general assistance cases from percentage of total recovery to percentage of original expense.

PA 425 - Abolishes settlement requirements of welfare cases, making the town in which a person becomes in need of aid liable for his support.

PA 503 - Permits employable persons who receive support from a town to perform such work as may be assigned them by public welfare officials of the town granting such support. Permits towns to establish work relief programs without losing the 50 per cent state reimbursement of town welfare costs.

Constitutional Amendments

Amendments approved this session by both legislative chambers, after having been accepted by one chamber in 1959, and now to be submitted to public vote in a referendum:

PA 596 - Permits absentee balloting on constitutional amendments.

PA 597 - Provides that qualifications of electors be decided at such time and in such manner as may be prescribed by law. At present this power is held by selectmen, town clerks, and assistant town clerks.

PA 598 - Provides that voting for the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor shall be as a unit. Authorizes the names of both candidates to appear together on the voting machine ballot labels.

PA 599 - Permits elector who has moved to a new town in the state to become an elector after residing in the new town for six months. Gives the General Assembly power to prescribe the procedure for registration of persons moving to a new town in the state.

PA 600 - Permits the General Assembly to provide for admission of members of the Armed Forces and related groups as electors in absentia.

Amendment proposals approved by one chamber and to be voted upon by the legislature in 1963:

Substitute for HR 12 - Establishes procedure for redistricting the Senate.

HR 28 - Compels towns and cities to exercise greater use of the Home Rule Act by forbidding the state legislature after May 30, 1965, from enacting any special legislation relative to the powers, organization, and form of government of a municipality. Limits the legislature's statutory powers in regard to municipalities to three areas: (a) setting borrowing limits for the municipalities, (b) passing validating acts, and (c) enacting laws regarding the formation, consolidation, or dissolution of cities, towns, or

boroughs. Purpose of the amendment is to make each municipality responsible for its own legislation, with the General Assembly to be called upon primarily in regard to general laws for all the municipalities.

HR 29 - Reduces from two to one the number of representatives to which each town is entitled in the House of Representatives. At present every town over 5,000 population is entitled to two representatives.

Bills Vetoed by the Governor

PA 60 (SB 290) - Changes present methods of appointing moderators in primary elections by allowing the registrar of voters to appoint moderators of his or her own choosing. The present law (Section 9-111 of the General Statutes) requires that appointments of primary officials be divided equally between designees of the party-endorsed candidates and designees of one or more of the contestants.

PA 406 (SB 564) - Eliminates the 30-day limit for damage suit notice to municipalities for falls on snow and ice, and the 60-day limit for other type falls.

PA 577 (SB 309) - Establishes administrative procedures in departments of the state government and in regard to declaratory rulings of state agencies.

